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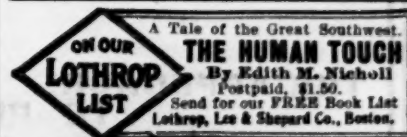
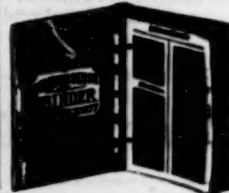
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The Week.

National pride is naturally flattered by the selection of Washington as the seat of the Peace Conference, and the compliment implied is the more acceptable in that it places in a clear light the absolute impartiality of this nation, and shows a confidence that President Roosevelt's act was based on altruistic motives. It is, indeed, seldom that a mediatory overture is of so frankly disinterested a character. Those observers who fear to find in the step which the President took in his personal capacity as Chief of State a warrant for his more dubious Central American activities, simply fail to make obvious discriminations. Under the Hague convention a purely pacific mediation is never to be construed as an offensive act. As a measure of sheer humanity, to prevent bloodshed, it is at the antipodes of all steps a nation may take to secure its real or imaginary interests abroad. Magnanimity has laws of its own, and the President is as much to be commended for his sane disregard of precedent in this matter, as he is to be condemned for covering aggressions in the past under a casual plea of the general welfare. As for the time of the conference, September will seem to many too far away. Yet unless the plenipotentiaries were to be selected among diplomats already in Europe or America, the details could hardly be arranged for an earlier day. The postponement makes an armistice seem more than ever a necessary prerequisite of peace—and less likely.

If President Roosevelt succeeds in extricating the various Government departments from the tangle of red tape in which they now labor, he will have accomplished one of the most signal and important reforms in the history of the civil service. In his letter of instruction to the very excellent committee appointed to carry out his plans, the President has certainly put his finger on the weak points in our present system. The tendency to regard properly docketed papers as ends in themselves, the needless multiplication of letter-writing and the making of official reports, the preposterous overpayment of some grades of work and the under-payment of others, are all things which a railroad company or manufacturing concern would long ago have regulated in the mere interests of economy. The chief criticism to be made regarding nearly all Government work is not that it is badly done, but that it is needlessly slow and expensive. Dr. Carl R.

Fish points out in his recent book, 'The Civil Service and Patronage,' that the Government service attracted, in the heyday of the spoils system, a class of political adventurers who, however unstable and unreliable, often had rather unusual capacity if they cared to use it. These, he says, have been succeeded in the classified service by a steadier but less showy class, who are attracted by steady, moderate incomes, short working hours, and certainty of employment. Washington is full of minor officials whose mastery of detail and understanding of conditions is prodigious, yet who have lost completely the power of initiative. Their inevitable tendency is to cling to the familiarized routine, and there is an element of truth in the common reproach that the Government clerk's constant thought is to make two men's work where only one was before. This evil is far more pervasive than departmental graft, and it may be predicted that systematic efforts at improvement will meet more stolid and obstinate opposition than the probing of actual scandals.

In its haste to obey Presidential instructions and "make the dirt fly," the new Panama Canal Commission, or its engineer, Mr. Wallace, has blundered very seriously. The first bids to be called for were those for dredging Colon Harbor. The Commission issued specifications on May 23, announcing that no bids were to be received after June 15, thus allowing only twenty-three days in which a contractor might go to Colon, get data—which after a year and a half's work the engineers were unable to supply—return to this country, and put in a bid. No boring results, soundings, or surveys were given to prospective bidders. Bids were asked for the removal of coral rock, clay, and sand and mud. As no quantities were given until June 9, six days before the bids were to be opened, it was impossible for any contractor to put in a bid, as this had to be accompanied by a bond for 10 per cent. of the work, and a security of 20 per cent. of the entire contract. Since the quantities were withheld until June 9, certain bonding companies refused to make any arrangements, particularly as the contract was to go to the lowest bidder on all three kinds of material.

By what appears to be a regular dispensation, whenever the President initiates a policy Mr. Taft makes a speech. For example, it is known that the President, writing to Secretary Metcalf, has commented in severe terms on the recent outrageous treatment of Chinese by the inspectors of immigration;

and Mr. Taft, speaking at the commencement of Miami University, gives an inkling of the terms Mr. Roosevelt may have employed. Touching the recent detention and annoyance of educated Chinese, Mr. Taft asked:

"Is it just that, for the purpose of excluding or preventing perhaps one hundred Chinese coolies from slipping into this country against the law, we should subject an equal number of Chinese merchants and students of high character to an examination of such an inquisitorial, humiliating, insulting, and physically uncomfortable character as to discourage altogether the coming of merchants and students? One of the great commercial prizes of the world is the trade with the four hundred million Chinese. Ought we to throw away the advantage which we have by reason of Chinese natural friendship for us, and continue to enforce an unjustly severe law, and thus create in the Chinese mind a disposition to boycott American trade and to drive our merchants from Chinese shores, simply because we are afraid that we may some time lose the approval of certain unreasonable and extreme popular leaders of California and other Coast States?"

The gist of the matter is in the last words. Because a few people of demagogical importance hate all Chinese and believe that it is impossible to tell a mandarin from a coolie, both belonging to a slippery race, our whole nation treats all incoming Chinese as potential criminals. Against this policy humanity and trade interest combine; and in fighting this ugly parochialism, and trying to bring Americans to think nationally on a matter of national interest, the President and Mr. Taft may count upon the support of all good citizens. The worst abuses, he it said, admit of prompt executive remedy through a modification of the regulations and practice of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

The meeting of the New York Civic Federation on Monday led to one of the most intelligent and illuminating discussions of the immigration question that we have had for some time. Such facts as were dwelt upon by the speakers ought to have the widest possible circulation, for they offset much of the hysterical talk of danger from foreign immigration. Thus, it was pointed out that, while the aggregate number of arrivals in the last few years has been unprecedented, it has meant relatively a much smaller infiltration of aliens into our population than in the days when foreign immigration is conceded to have been of benefit to the country. In the decade from 1851 to 1860, every thousand residents of this country had the task of assimilating 110 foreigners. In the ten years ending in 1900, however, the immigrants numbered only 59 to every thousand of natives. By way of contrast, at the same meeting a demand was formulated for the exclusion of Japanese, a curious corollary to the admira-

tion which Japan's victories have excited here. It was made, too, on the very day when in China meetings of students and of commercial guilds were discussing means for rendering their boycott of American goods more effective. The two items throw into high relief our preposterous policy of seeking extended markets in Oriental countries at the same time that we subject their citizens to oppressive and humiliating restrictions here.

Judge De Haven's action, in the Federal District Court of Oregon, in overruling the demurrer entered by Senator Mitchell's counsel and sustaining his indictment, opens the way to obtaining light upon the public land frauds. A list recently compiled by the officials of the Land Office shows that seventy-four persons have at various times been indicted for complicity in land frauds in Oregon and California. Of these, six have been tried and convicted, including Senator Mitchell's law partner, Albert H. Tanner, who was charged with perjury. The other five included three land dealers and two men who were merely tools. The cases of John A. Benson, Frederick A. Hyde, Harry P. Diamond, and J. T. Schneider of San Francisco, who were indicted for wholesale manipulations under the "Forest Reserve" law, must soon come to trial in Washington. Their last card was played when, a few weeks ago, the Supreme Court denied a writ of habeas corpus applied for by Hyde and Diamond. With the ousting of Binger Hermann from the Commission of the General Land Office a new spirit seems to have pervaded the Interior Department. Just twenty years ago President Cleveland's proclamation, calling upon the authorities to enforce a recently passed anti-fencing bill, was issued, but for twenty years the law has been coolly disregarded. Now the recent indictment of R. M. Allen, manager of the Standard Cattle Company of Nebraska, for the unlawful fencing of public lands has alarmed the grafters. A vigorous prosecution of the Mitchell case will go far toward convincing them and the public that the official attitude toward the land grabbers has really changed.

The past two years have been notable for the disappearance of the United States, at first gradual, then rapid, from the ranks of important wheat-exporters. The Government's returns for May show an export of wheat, in both grain and flour, amounting to 4,000,000 bushels; as lately as May, 1902, they were 15,800,000. The total wheat and flour exports since the harvest of 1904 have been the smallest of any year in our history since 1872. Expert opinion has veered to the belief that our place as a wheat-exporter can never be regained, the three reasons commonly assigned being loss of their

early productiveness by the older wheat lands; diversion of the lands to other more profitable purposes, as rural communities grow into urban; and rapid increase in home consumption as our population increases. The past year's experience has actually proved that a crop which would have been deemed very large ten years ago, is now insufficient to feed our people and leave a surplus. But last year's 552,000,000-bushel harvest was small compared with the 727,000,000-bushel yield of 1901; the margin between the two would provide for a very respectable export trade. The test of the coming season will be extremely interesting, because the grain trade has figured out already, from the Government's acreage and condition estimates, an "indicated" crop of some 700,000,000 bushels. June indications are a precarious basis for expectations; it is the two subsequent months which really try the fertility of the soil. Nevertheless, the event should throw light on the country's future place in the grain-exporting world.

From Gov. Folk of Missouri we have come to expect nothing but strenuousness. His order, therefore, to the sheriff of St. Louis County to arrest all who violate the law by betting on horse races, is merely part of a daily routine. In a State as devoted to horses, horse-racing, and betting on horse races as Missouri is, Gov. Folk's firmness will cause both inconvenience and pain; but the Legislature has passed the statute, and the Governor purposes to enforce it even if he has to call out the militia. Gov. Herrick of Ohio has just declared his purpose to start a movement against professional lobbying. "The professional lobbyist," he asserts, "is a criminal. We must do more than arrest, we must exterminate him." This is excellent, although the Governor is aiming a deadly blow at one of the most profitable and best-protected industries of Ohio. In Milwaukee the grand jury meets this week for what the dispatches describe as a "graft-hunt"; and all the small politicians and contractors are running to cover. The Mayors' Association of Connecticut has just held its annual meeting and discussed the troublesome question of Sunday liquor selling. Whether the State will be any dryer than heretofore, no one yet knows. Connecticut, as the world learned in the recent contest for a United States Senatorship, is a land whose steady habits are often bad. But Bishop Brewster has recently spoken in condemnation of immorality in politics, and the ferment started by the Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth may be still working.

The spectacle of the men who ruled Philadelphia autocratically a few months ago, now hurrying to secure bail in anticipation of arrest, is indeed note-

worthy. That city, in fact, now knows a good many things about its rulers that it had hitherto only suspected. It came out in court last week that Israel W. Durham, State Senator McNichol, and his wife owned, between them, eleven-twelfths of the stock of the contracting firm in whose interest lower bids on the great filtration plant were thrown out under the Ashbridge administration. Mayor Weaver has promptly followed up this revelation by suspending work on these contracts and ordering a thorough investigation of all their phases. The very boldness of the plunderers appears to have made possible an exposure that leaves no excuse for doubt or question. Thus, the United Gas Improvement Company was so careless about covering its tracks that it had charged up to "permanent improvements" such items as candles, lamp wicks, and soap. We may look forward, then, to the results of probing the filtration contract, with the expectation that it will disprove even the poor boast of downtrodden Philadelphia that its ring was the shrewdest and most resourceful of any in America.

The refusal of Justice Warren B. Hooker to resign and thus save the State from an extra session of the Legislature will excite no sympathy for Chairman Odell and the Republican machineists. They are responsible for elevating to the bench a man of Hooker's character; and, now that his rascality has been made public, they must suffer for their alliance with him. In Hooker himself no sense of decency is to be looked for. A man who will defraud the Federal Government will cling up to the last minute to his salary as justice. He will stay till he is kicked out, in the desperate hope that, by fair means or foul, a third of the Legislature may be won over to his side. If the Legislature meets and, in the face of the evidence already presented, fails to retire Hooker, the Republican party will be badly damaged. Hooker's close personal relations with Odell in times past have been matters of common talk. Under such circumstances anything short of summary punishment for Hooker will be regarded as an exertion of political influence to keep a tainted judge in office.

The agreement concluded between Mr. Ryan and the three voting trustees provides that Equitable Life directors shall hereafter consist of twenty-eight policyholders and twenty-four "lawfully eligible persons," not necessarily policyholders. Every Equitable policyholder is invited to express to the trustees his suggestions for the first-named class of directors. In their discretion, the trustees may decide to confer on policyholders the right to a direct and conclusive

vote for such twenty-eight members of the board. No precise method of obtaining this vote is prescribed. The trustees, after such "mutualization," shall continue to vote in their own discretion for the twenty-four remaining directors. In case of death or resignation of any of the three trustees, he is to be replaced by vote of the survivors. The trust agreement is to be renewed and continued "as long as the trustees shall deem advisable." A provision of some importance is, that "no vote shall be cast upon said stock, for any purpose, except with the unanimous approval of the trustees." It will be seen that, on the face of the agreement, the plan of partial mutualization is for the present safeguarded. But it must also be observed that the agreement makes as yet no sure provision for the longer future

The defects of the plan, as of the "mutualization" scheme to which Mr. Hyde agreed last February, are, first, that it makes no provision whereby the policyholders' wishes may be effectively ascertained; second, that it leaves a strong probability of the Society being really managed by the compact majority of twenty-four directors chosen in behalf of the stock, and, third, that confidence based on the personality of any or all of the present voting trustees is dependent on a life-time. In other words, it appears to us, as it has appeared from the start, that the crux of the whole matter is the stock ownership. The agreement with the trustees makes no reference to a purpose of transferring the stock eventually to the company. Indeed, it describes the plan of electing twenty-eight directors through policyholders' vote as "the consummation of said plan for the mutualization of the Society." For ourselves, we cannot so regard it. Even Mr. Hyde's proposition of four months ago was that "if the board, upon such consideration, determines to retire the stock, I shall cheerfully coöperate in the change in any way which has due regard to the rights and equities of both stockholders and policyholders." Mr. Ryan can hardly do less than repeat this pledge. By his own formal statement, he, as the sole purchaser of Hyde's 502 shares of stock, occupies precisely Hyde's former position. It must not be forgotten that the situation involved by single ownership was the cause of the Equitable's troubles.

The Fourth of July racket is beginning somewhat earlier than usual this year. Independence Day is still twelve days ahead, and yet in some streets the din of explosives already keeps up throughout the day and evening. Therefore the invoking of a new section of the Penal Code against a dealer in fireworks who sold a noise-making contrivance that ultimately destroyed a boy's eye, is an item of great interest. It goes

without saying that, so long as the authorities permit fireworks to be discharged in our streets, the vending of them is in itself an entirely lawful and legitimate business. Yet, if regulation is to be attempted, the shopkeeper is the man most easily reached. For one thing, he has a definite place of business and can be found, while the small boy who makes the trouble is here, there, everywhere, and nowhere. Besides, the doctrine that the buyer assumes all risk is ludicrous when the buyer is an irresponsible urchin, anxious only to produce as startling effects as possible for as few pennies as possible. Whatever may be said of the orgy of noise on the glorious Fourth itself, it is certainly proper that everything possible should be done to suppress wanton noise-making in the long weeks that precede the holiday.

If it was not given to Maximo Gomez, as to Garcia, to aid the Americans when they landed near Santiago; it was to him that the Americans turned for aid when the Spanish evacuated Havana, and the assistance he then rendered was of far greater value. Thanks to his advice, the Cubans were content to pass through a period of probation; thanks largely to him, the Wood régime came to an end without any public mutterings against that unpopular governor. In return for his services, both the temporary government and the present republic showed themselves grateful by granting large enough sums to make the General's old age more than comfortable—he had sacrificed a considerable fortune in the course of his warring. But this was not necessary to make him throw his weight for peace and internal order. He had had his stomachful of fighting, and he no longer enjoyed friction even of a purely political sort. Up to very recently he had stood, with all his great influence, behind President Palma. Lately, it was reported that he, too, had grown uneasy over the responsiveness of President Palma to American influences, and there was in consequence some discussion of his name as an Opposition candidate to succeed his friend. His death has interfered with any such schemes. That Gomez would, in any case, have given his consent to any serious opposition to the United States is incredible, for he was quite conscious of the fact that not even his dogged courage and grim determination could have overthrown Spanish tyranny without aid from the United States, first given by individuals and later by the army and navy.

A quarrel on a point of personal dignity seldom is settled on a basis of severe logic, so one may welcome the rumored compromise of the dispute between Berlin and Paris by the calling

of a Moroccan conference formal enough to please the Kaiser, but innocuous enough not to displease Premier Rouvier. It appears that Rouvier has assented "in principle" to an international conference, and that Bülow has promised that the congress shall do nothing to impair the Anglo-French agreement. Since that treaty practically has established the lines of Moroccan policy, not only as regards France and England, but also with respect to the world at large, it is evident that an international conference called under the conditions aforesaid would practically have nothing more to do than to ratify the Anglo-French agreement and adjourn. On the other hand, such rather empty proceedings would at least give to Germany that recognition as a Mediterranean Power for which the Kaiser has been contending, and, in case of any weakening of the French-English arrangement, might serve as a precedent for considering the Sherif as the ward of Europe. Since Germany has had excellent success in treating the present "Sick Man of the East," she desires to have the entrée to the equally promising invalid who occupies uneasily the throne of the Moorish Empire. Whether Germany's apparent diplomatic triumph has not been too dearly bought is an open question. Since the Kaiser's speech at Tangier, who can be certain where the mailed fist will next be brandished? The Moroccan affair may very well increase the growing isolation of Germany.

The paradox that reigns in things Russian is illustrated by the contrast between the official attempt to prevent the sitting of the Zemstvo Congress at Moscow and the cordial reception of its delegates at Tarskoe-Selo on Monday. The Czar not only welcomed the delegates most heartily, but assured them that he counted on their aid in repairing the damage of the war, and more particularly, promised that "the admission of elected representatives to works of state would be regularly accomplished." He added, "I watch every day and devote myself to this work." And now one may only hope that the generous wishes expressed to the Moscow zemstvoists may become effective. As yet conflicting reports of the peace negotiations, frequent changes in the Ministry of the Interior, and the revival of the Third Section, forbid one to assert that the time of hesitation is over, and that single-minded counsels prevail at St. Petersburg. But, with all these doubts, the "well done" of humanity will go to the Czar for his clear-cut admission of the honorable and necessary aims of the reformers, and for his promise of a representative assembly. Merely to speak such words is a pledge of action, if only on the familiar principle that we sometimes are what we seem to ourselves—*poscunt quia posse videntur*.

LABOR AND GRAFT.

The venality of the Chicago labor leaders, as revealed in the current dispatches, surprises nobody. Of late we have supped so full of tales of graft, from the highest finance to the lowest, that news of another walking delegate gone wrong stirs but languid interest. The case of John C. Driscoll, "strike-settling expert," parallels in many features the cases of Parks and Weinseimer of New York. Driscoll admits that in the last five years he has settled some four hundred strikes, large and small, and that he has paid out about \$50,000 of employers' money in doing so. These payments, of course, have been made to chieftains in the various unions. Apparently, the presidency of a labor union is in its way a good thing.

The methods of Driscoll were exquisitely simple. According to his own confession, the strike of the clothing makers was a cheap affair, costing only about \$500. W. T. Brownridge, president of the National Wholesale Tailors' Association, handed the money to Driscoll, with instructions to "go ahead and fix the labor people." Driscoll accordingly "squared the trouble all right." During the strike of the bakers against the National Biscuit Company, Driscoll was offered various sums of money by the employers if he would keep the teamsters out of the controversy. He turned over some money—he doesn't remember how much—to the officials of the local unions. The result was that the teamsters saw no great moral principle involved; they let the bakers go it alone, and the strike was broken. In the strike of cooks and waiters in 1903 the strikers wanted the teamsters to refuse to carry coal and other supplies to the hotels and restaurants, but the Hotel and Restaurant Keepers' Association raised \$500 for Driscoll. As Driscoll himself phrases it, "If it had not been for my influence there would have been plenty of trouble." Frank Rea, business agent of the Commission Wagon Drivers' Union, said Driscoll, "got \$5,000 out of the stockyards strike last summer." Naturally, Driscoll had considerable respect for Rea's ability; certain other leaders he contemptuously designated as "a cheap bunch."

Another man who did not belong to the "cheap bunch" was Albert Young of the Coal Teamsters' Union. In the affair involving Young, J. C. Roth, manager of the Great Northern Hotel, proved to be an "easy mark." He paid \$1,000 because the coal teamsters, during the engineers' strike, threatened to shut off the coal. Driscoll handled the money, and the officials of the union pocketed it. There was, as Driscoll learned afterwards, never any danger of a strike, although Albert Young and his associates frightened Mr. Roth into believing that there was.

A further detail of Driscoll's opera-

tions is worthy of note. One of his important duties as a strike-settling expert was to employ a good healthy "wrecking crew." This crew would, when policy demanded, attack non-union workmen. But with equal zest and impartiality it would, under orders, maim or kill a union man himself, one of the Lord's anointed. If a labor leader had received money to settle a strike, but was unable to persuade his followers to give up, he had recourse to the wrecking crew. "There was," asserts Driscoll, "many a strike picket who suffered when a labor official, without being able to call off a strike, had given his tacit consent to the 'clearing of the alleys.'" To continue in Driscoll's own words:

"After the union leaders had been 'fixed,' we started at it. 'Clearing the alleys' means putting out of business the pickets who may have had orders to prevent teamsters from driving loads to struck houses. We didn't pay any attention to those orders, because we had the wink from the union officials. I had men to see that the alleys were cleared, and if the pickets didn't obey the instructions of my 'wrecking' crew, they had their blocks [heads] knocked off."

This is, we believe, as low a depth of treachery as any labor leader has yet plumbed—not only to sell out your followers, but to deliver them over to the violence of your own hired thugs.

Even Driscoll had his code of honor. He indignantly denied that he had ever "given money to start strikes or to manipulate them in certain ways." In the New York building trades, be it remembered, the ethical code was not so exacting. If a construction company was having difficulty in completing a contract on time, the simple remedy was to pay a labor leader a suitable fee, have a strike called on the work, and then offer the strike as excuse for the failure. A convenient way, also, to clear your rivals out of the alleys here in New York was to knock their blocks off by persuading their men to strike. In fine, the field for the activities of a strike expert in any large city is practically boundless. To quote again the precious words of Mr. Driscoll, "the game of labor commissioner, one to which few men are adapted," is "perfectly legitimate in view of the rotten condition of the labor market."

Nothing is easier than to denounce the baseness of men like Parks, Weinseimer, and Driscoll. They are the real enemies to labor unions; compared with them, the various associations of employers, formed in every part of the country to fight unionism, are positively friendly. For the Parks and the Driscolls cast discredit upon the whole movement with which they are identified; they throw suspicion upon every strike, and give color to the sweeping accusation that all labor leaders are blackmailers. No strike, as experience has proved again and again, can succeed unless it win public sympathy. In Chicago, however, these confessions and recrimina-

tions will for a long time make it impossible for any union to command popular support unless it is protesting against some extraordinary and palpable injustice. The cause of downtrodden labor, as the eloquent agitators term it, has received a smashing blow.

But Driscoll and the "cheap bunch" whom he "squared" from time to time are not the only actors in this sordid tragedy. From Driscoll and his rabble one cannot expect high intelligence and a delicate sense of propriety. They were out for ill-gotten gain as frankly as any vulgar stock-jobber. Back of them stand eminent business men, who cannot plead as excuse either poverty, ignorance, or criminal training. For every blackmailer there is a man who will pay blackmail; for every bribe-taker, a bribe-giver. It takes two to make a corrupt bargain as well as an honest one. Driscoll could, according to his own admission, have accomplished nothing had it not been for the kindly coöperation of W. T. Brownridge, once president of the National Wholesale Tailors' Association, certain officers of the National Biscuit Company, J. C. Roth of the Great Northern Hotel, and others of equal standing. These gentlemen, models of commercial integrity, joined hands with an avowed corruptionist in a conspiracy against both labor and capital.

THE PAUL MORTON CASE.

It is now officially admitted that Judson Harmon and Frederick N. Judson, the two distinguished lawyers employed by the Government to investigate the giving of rebates by the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railway to the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, have withdrawn from the case because of dissatisfaction with the attitude of the Attorney-General. Put in plain language, they have declined to continue their researches because they consider that the Government, by not giving them a free hand, has broken its faith with them. The bone of contention is Paul Morton, whose service as Secretary of the Navy terminates in another week. It is understood that Messrs. Judson and Harmon—the latter a warm friend of Mr. Morton's father, with whom Mr. Harmon sat in President Cleveland's second Cabinet—wish to prosecute Mr. Morton for giving secret rebates, and that the exponents of the "square deal" at Washington are not in favor of this procedure.

Since the Attorney-General, Mr. Moody, is now trying to come to an agreement with Messrs. Judson and Harmon upon some form of statement, we have no desire to prejudge either his action or that of Mr. Roosevelt. The hour has, however, come to present the facts in this case precisely as they are, and review without bias the actual charges against Mr. Morton. It is hardly neces-

sary to do more than point out that the incident is fraught with danger for a President who has justly acquired of late a very enviable renown for his readiness to prosecute not merely the "bad" Trusts, but all corporation offenders. His zeal in this direction has made him appear to thousands upon thousands of citizens a knightly defender of the rights of the people, ready to break innumerable lances in their behalf upon the armor of the Trusts and corrupt public-service corporations. If it should appear, therefore, that he was unwilling to expose a member of his own official family to deserved punishment, the disappointment in him would be widespread and great. Not even his well-known loyalty to his friends would excuse a failure to deliver Mr. Morton to the prosecuting authorities and the courts. It would, moreover, increase the doubts as to his earnestness in fighting for the rate-making power which are apparent in diverse quarters since the practical admission that there is to be no extra session of Congress for that purpose.

In his statement of Thursday Mr. Moody admits that there is a "point of difference" between his investigators and himself. But there can be no difference of opinion as to what Mr. Morton's offences were, because they were proved by his own testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission. His statements and those of other officials who were concerned led to such an outburst of protests from the entire West that there was nothing for the Government to do except to proceed with a view to punishing the guilty. Testifying before the Commission in Washington on December 19, 1901, in regard to a certain contract, Mr. Morton said, under oath: "Yes, sir, it was an illegal contract. It was illegal when we made it, and we knew it." A year previously this same witness had said to the Commission: "I think the corporation should be fined whenever it grants a rebate, and the shipper should be fined and forced to disgorge what he had received." A year later, in 1902, this same Paul Morton, then vice-president of the Santa Fé, was in especial charge of freight traffic. His subordinate, W. P. Biddle, freight-traffic manager of the Santa Fé, admitted last January on the witness stand that he had given a rebate on coal shipped by a certain company. Mr. Morton openly defended his subordinate, saying: "What Mr. Biddle did was exactly right in my judgment. Everybody did just as we did, and they had to, or go out of business." Commissioner Prouty characterized this action as "a barefaced violation of the law."

But these samples of Mr. Morton's unblushing activity as a law-breaker do not complete the indictment. In 1902, his brothers, Joy and Mark Morton, owned

a salt mill in Hutchinson, Kansas, part of the Trust known as the Hutchinson-Kansas Salt Company, which decided to freeze out its independent competitors by obtaining special freight rates. The Mortons were the men of the hour; they had previously built sidetracks and switches less than a mile in length, to connect their mill with the Atchison and the Rock Island Railroads. Joy and Mark Morton sold to themselves these sidings for \$8,000, and formed the Hutchinson and Arkansas River Railroad Company. Without being possessed of a single car or a locomotive, they applied to Brother Paul for a traffic agreement—and got it. A few months later this fake railroad received \$15,301.39 as its share of the freight rates, although the salt from the Morton mill was "billed in the same way, was taken out by the same engine, was transported in exactly the same manner, as it had been." Thanks to this clever scheme, the Morton mill had an obvious advantage over the independent mills.

Now, to allow such a plain violation of the law to escape punishment would be bad enough from the point of view of the Administration, but it would be even worse from that of the people. It would confirm a very widespread belief, particularly strong in the West, that a corporation rascal can escape every time where a small thief gets a long term in jail. Our Hydes and Alexanders go scot free after abusing their positions of trust; it is the Equitable clerk who steals \$27,000 of the policyholders' money who finds himself in jail. As we have frequently pointed out, all the Trust prosecutions in the world will not reach the real evil if the men behind them, those who violate the laws, grant rebates, take unfair advantages or corrupt public officials, are to go free. When that eagerly desired day comes on which a corporation officer goes to jail for something less than cracking a safe, the common people will begin to feel that there is, after all, justice in America, and that the law is at last catching up with the new type of law-breaker whom District Attorney Jerome described so well last week. Mr. Jerome cannot make his correspondents believe that the acts of men in the management of the Equitable differ essentially from those of Larry Summerfield, confidence man. Mr. Moody will have to exert all his great ability to make such honest if out-of-date people appreciate his reason for differing with Messrs. Judson and Harmon as to his duty to prosecute the avowed law-breaker Morton, associate of Presidents and financiers.

THE BRITISH COLONIAL CONFERENCE.

To understand the recent outbreak against Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons and to judge the reiterated

charges of bad faith brought against him by Unionist journals like the *Spectator*, one must examine his attitude towards the proposed colonial conference on the fiscal question. Mr. Chamberlain, in his famous Birmingham speech, assuming that the colonies all desired a closer union, urged that a conference should be called to fix a basis for Imperial reciprocity. He held, practically, that only by this means could Parliament at once learn the depth of Imperial sentiment and secure a mandate for specific legislation. Amplifying this idea, Mr. Balfour has always maintained that, until the colonial conference should meet, Imperial reciprocity, while regarded by the Government with benevolent expectancy, was not and should not be a party policy, nor even a subject of Parliamentary comment. This view that the fiscal question had no immediate importance, Mr. Balfour has carried so far as to require the majority to leave the House whenever that issue is raised by the Opposition.

Moreover, he had formulated his programme of fiscal Fabianism in the now famous promise of two elections: first, the country was to vote whether or not it desired to call a colonial conference on the preferential plan; next, it was to vote on any recommendations such a conference might make. At this project of reciprocity by stages Mr. Chamberlain has always looked askance. He has expected to be beaten on an appeal to the constituencies, but to come in triumphantly, after a short interval, over the bodies of the demoralized Liberals. Mr. Balfour, on the other hand, has assumed that he could win the next two elections, and his determination to resign before he so much as called a conference has given a certain logical color to his otherwise grotesque contention that the most discussed matter of the day is of no immediate concern to Parliament.

But when Mr. Balfour promised not to call an especial conference before a general election, he had clean forgot that there was a regular colonial conference, adjourned since 1902, which would naturally convene in 1906. To let this regular meeting of colonial premiers slip his mind was, if strange, at least explicable. The conference of 1902, which passed mild resolutions recommending Imperial reciprocity, has been, in a sense, Mr. Chamberlain's private affair; it had been of rather little importance in the public eye until Mr. Chamberlain had magnified its amiable endorsement of his schemes into an urgent mandate. But once the conference of 1906 was recalled to Mr. Balfour's mind, what was he to do about it? By obtaining a reflection before it convened he might fairly accept its decision in lieu of that of a special conference. Otherwise, he was bound either not to call the stated meeting or to exclude the fiscal issue from its deliberations. It was at

this point that Mr. Balfour's way became devious: far be it from him either to fail to call the regular conference, or to limit in any way the topics which might come before the representatives of free British colonies.

It was this decision, or the credible rumor of it, that let loose pandemonium in the usually decorous House. On all sides it was felt that Mr. Balfour had proposed a game of "heads I win, tails you lose." For of what avail would it be to promise that the next election should turn merely on the question of convening a colonial conference *ad hoc*, if meantime the regular conference of 1906 should make a vigorous pronouncement in favor of the Chamberlain plan? In other words, Mr. Balfour was suspected, and justly, of maintaining his attitude of philosophic doubt on fiscal matters only until circumstances should cast the die, and he was roundly charged with postponing the issue for two elections, while fully conscious that the conference of 1906 might automatically and inevitably make the fiscal issue the storm centre of the next election. And, in fact, how could that contest be purged of fiscalism? Speaking before the National Union of Conservative and Constitutional Associations, in Albert Hall, June 3, Mr. Balfour thus taunted the Opposition: "Do they mean to treat with contempt the oft-expressed wish of our mighty children—Canada, Australia, South Africa? Do they mean, without examination, without consultation, to reject the overtures that have been made to us?" The very phrases are Mr. Chamberlain's, and when they are repeated by a thousand orators on the hustings after the colonial conference of 1906, it is easy to see what pledges that the fiscal issue cannot enter into the contest will be worth.

It is the sense that Mr. Balfour promises one procedure while confidently expecting to be forced into another, that lends bitterness to charges of bad faith, and utterly deprives of value such pledges as Lord Lansdowne made the other day in the House of Lords. He said that the Government most certainly would not lay before the country any conclusions regarding the fiscal question reached by the colonial conference of 1906. If the Government were returned to power at the next general election, it would summon a special colonial conference to discuss preference, and the conclusions of that special conference would be laid before the country. Here is the familiar dogma of two elections in its full form, subject only to the modification that the conclusions of the colonial conference of 1906 may insist on laying themselves before the country. In which case Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne would be absolved from their promises much as an express company disclaims responsibility for non-delivery due to "the act of God."

How equivocal this attitude is, will be perceived when it is recalled that there is no obligation to convene the conference of 1906; in fact, it would be inexpedient to have it discuss partially and unauthoritatively matters which are to be handled more fully by a special conference representing the entire Empire. First to forget the regular conference completely and then to be willing to use it as a *ballon d'essai* to find how the fiscal wind blows, is more creditable to Mr. Balfour's openmindedness than to his ideals of political fair dealing. The straight course would be either to omit the conference of 1906 or invest it with plenary capacity and go to the country before it meets. As things stand, Mr. Balfour is a good deal in the position of a judge who appoints a trial spin prepared to declare it a genuine race if his favorite wins. The general suspicion that he is not playing fair must hurt him, and the Liberals surely have no occasion to regret a vacillation that may hasten an election on the fiscal issue. The capture of nineteen Unionist constituencies in the past three years, and the regular increase of Liberal majorities in bye-elections, show the prevailing sentiment against protectionism.

GERMANY AND HER SUBJECT RACES.

It is not merely in Southwest Africa and in her other distant colonies that Germany has to deal with subject races. Within her own borders she has been struggling for decades to absorb the French in Alsace-Lorraine, the Danes in Schleswig-Holstein, and the Poles in Prussian Poland. All of these territories came to her through the sword, and, in all, the existing conditions go far to bear out the maxim that war solves no questions. The French are still hoping to become once more a part of the Republic; the Danes, with no expectation of becoming subjects of Denmark, cling obstinately to their language and customs; while among the Poles the desire for a separate nationality is if anything keener than in the days of Kosciusko. It matters not that millions of Poles are Russian and Austrian subjects. The 3,500,000 to 4,000,000 Poles who owe allegiance to the Kaiser, have so obstinately refused to be absorbed that the Government not only finds itself compelled to use force to maintain the German language in the public schools, but has actually spent many millions of marks in an effort to drive out the Poles by acquiring their lands.

How keen this struggle for the soil has been is well described in the *Contemporary Review* for June by Emil Givskov. As his name indicates, this writer's point of view is not that of a Bismarck or a Von Bülow, yet he has not brought out the intense bitterness

which this century-old struggle has created in Germany, or pointed out that defection from the Government's policy of gradual expropriation of Polish landowners is all but equivalent to high treason. When it became known the other day that Lieutenant-Colonel von Keszycski, commander of the historic Zieten Hussars, had sold his great estate in Posen to Poles, there was at once an uproar throughout Germany which has seriously endangered that officer's military future. The Nationalist newspapers were particularly furious because this was the third case within a couple of months of such a sale by persons supposedly loyal Germans, who are now accused of selling out their country's interests for thirty pieces of silver. In each of these cases they could have sold their property to the German Land Bank, which represents the nationalization movement, at a slightly smaller price, but their patriotism was not sufficient to make them welcome the sacrifice.

The sharp-witted Poles have not only maintained and extended their positions in Posen and West Prussia, but have actually taken the offensive by purchasing forty large estates in Pomerania. Even in Upper Silesia they are buying and parcelling out great estates. Yet Bismarck, when he began aggressive measures against the Poles by expelling 50,000 Polish laborers, thought he had dealt a staggering blow to the Polish landowners. The resultant scarcity of labor did ruin many holders of large estates, and Bismarck seized the opportunity to appoint a committee on colonization, armed with \$20,000,000 for the purpose of acquiring large tracts and reselling them to settlers from other parts of Germany. This committee met at first with great success; but gradually, as the proprietors sold out, they put their money into the Polish land banks, of which there were soon a large number. After a while these banks were able to buy farms for Polish peasants quite as fast as the German committee succeeded in getting estates from the landholding class. When the committee's first twenty millions were expended, it was given twenty, and finally fifty millions additional. By January 1, 1904, it had bought up 405 estates and 226 peasant farms, and an area of 726 square miles. A German population of 49,000 has actually been settled on these lands, one-half of which have been parcelled out for nearly eleven millions of dollars. In addition, the committee has built 25 churches, 17 chapels, 24 dwelling houses for the clergy, 177 schools, 191 municipal and 497 private buildings, among them many inns.

Impressive as this showing undoubtedly is, Mr. Givskov is able to offset it by a few official figures. Thus, while the Germans, in the years 1896 to 1901, parcelled out 7,828 estates, containing 617,-

200 hectares, the Poles have distributed 9,079 estates, containing, however, only 213,700 hectares. While the Germans have thus resold more land, the Poles are ahead in the number of new farms created, 6,000 more Polish homes having been erected than German. In the last two years this lead has been proportionately increased, because the Pole is ready to become a peasant farmer, while the average German wants more land and more comfort than his rival. Thus the average German farm comprises twenty-six acres, while the Polish contains only twelve. Finally, this peaceful warfare for a country is illuminated by the fact that the Germans have acquired 3,772 estates from Polish owners, who have, however, turned the tables by buying up 5,183 estates from Germans. The latter have in this way actually lost possession of 128 square miles in the years 1896 to 1902 inclusive. It is needless to add that this extraordinary contest for the land has sent prices up in a remarkable manner, from an average of \$60 per acre in 1886 to \$115 in 1903.

Forty years have elapsed since Germany annexed the Danish provinces. Yet, if Mr. Givskov's figures are to be trusted, she has made very slight progress in Germanizing her most northern subjects, there being actually more farms owned by Danes and fewer by Germans to-day than in 1864. Like their Polish fellow-citizens, the Danes, moreover, insist upon retaining their language and national characteristics, and even induce the few German immigrants to learn Danish. This fact is the more surprising in that the Danes are forced to serve three years in the German army, during which time they are supposed to acquire German speech and habits of mind. Only in the towns is the German influence growing. All this is, of course, in remarkable contrast to the readiness with which the United States makes over its immigrants into good Americans.

A CLEARING-HOUSE FOR ART.

We have received from Chicago a circular bearing the ambitious title, "On the Ideal Relations of Public Libraries, Museums, and Art Galleries to the City." It is compiled by Dr. O. C. Farrington, representing the Chicago Library Club, and it recommends the formation of an advisory paid commission, consisting of officers and directors of public libraries and museums, which shall consider all matters of common interest and policy and gradually "find its own powers." Now, this plan may or may not be the best, and it may or may not be accepted by the city government, but it is evident that there is a common ground between art and literary institutions over which a joint commission might exercise a very salutary jurisdiction.

Under the present arrangement, or lack of it, there is constant overlapping and waste. For example, until, of late years, the Metropolitan Museum set up its own reference library, any visitor who desired information of a special sort on its exhibits was obliged to go either to the Astor Library, the private Society Library, the Avery Library, or that of one of the literary clubs. Similarly, a student of the applied arts might well be in doubt whether to begin work at the Cooper Union or at the Metropolitan Museum, while a collector drawing up his last will and testament to-night may not know so elementary a principle as that textiles should go to the Cooper Union, and wrought iron and ancient glass to the Metropolitan Museum; or that prints and engravings should be given not to any of the art institutions, but to the Public Library, which, in the Avery collection of modern etchings, and in collections of historical subjects and of Japanese color wood-cuts, has an admirable beginning of a department. Returning to the student's point of view, it will possibly surprise many amateurs to learn that the fascinating subject of barbaric design must be studied in New York, not at any of the art museums, but at the Natural History Museum, which has instructive collections in Orientalia, as in primitive archaeology generally.

In part, such illogical dispersion and duplication is merely an inevitable effect of individualism in men and institutions. Donors are guided largely by personal acquaintance and predilection; institutions are seldom magnanimous enough to decline or divert into logical channels valuable gifts which lie aside from their proper work. In a matter so essentially temperamental as collecting and bequeathing works of art, no organization will ever wholly eliminate caprice, but an intelligent committee might at least define the proper functions of its constituent libraries and museums, might set up an ideal to which private benefactors would gradually approximate, and, by the exchange of loan collections, or, where conditions permit, by actual purchase or barter, might do much to reduce to order a group of institutions that have "jest grewed." Such a board, since our museums and libraries are mostly of a half-private nature, could probably have no official standing, and would exercise very limited powers, but it is a matter in which intelligence and good will may easily gain the weight of authority without its invidiousness. By degrees a kind of friendly compact might do away with harmful duplication and competition. In short, a museum and library board might fairly hope to accomplish in the field of art that useful work as a clearing-house now effected in the field of philanthropy by the Charity Organization Society.

We need emphatically a more plentiful

supply of general ideas in matters artistic. Take the case of the Metropolitan Museum—not because it is exceptional, but because it is more striking: At present it falls, in its contents and policy, somewhere between the National Gallery and the South Kensington Museum. It is building up a collection of choice articles chiefly for purposes of human delight, and it is assembling heterogeneous, if comprehensive, collections chiefly from the point of view of historical study and of practical design. These aims are in a measure incompatible; at least they require clear perception and judicious recognition in the arrangement of galleries. Evidently it would be unfortunate for the Museum haphazardly to make all art to be its province, in disregard of the parallel activities of the great libraries and museums of the metropolitan district. It might turn out that a far greater specialization than at present exists is desirable; that the rough division between the fine and industrial arts which is strictly and successfully observed at Berlin and less stringently in London and Paris, would be expedient here also. One may conceive, for example, that the field of the applied arts might with advantage be left to institutions like the Cooper and Pratt, where these exhibits are immediately serviceable to the artist artisan, and not less available for the student and art lover. And if testamentary conditions stood in the way of actual transfer of exhibits, there could be no obstacles to loans—for long periods.

Short of such radical readjustment, it would do the officers of our libraries and museums much good merely to know what the others are doing, and a body that expressed the best judgment on art matters would have abundant *raison d'être*. We have no doubt that, from the present personnel of these institutions, a board could be chosen which would soon acquire an influence corresponding to the unquestioned scholarship and sagacity of its presumptive members.

MAZZINI'S CENTENARY.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 18, 1905.

The wise instinct of the world has long since admitted Joseph Mazzini into the company of its great men. He would certainly be included, along with Cavour and Bismarck, Lincoln and Emerson, in any group of half a score representatives of the nineteenth century. For forty years he embodied the European Revolution—a monster to some, a model or a martyr to others; but as soon as death removed him as a living menace, his foes conceded his eminence. To-day, his great book, "The Duties of Man," is a textbook in every Italian school. Time has done for him what it does for all rebels—it has stripped off the temporal and left the permanent. And at last we see that—unlike those rebels who combat a special abuse and, when that abuse falls, have no further significance—Mazzini belongs among the little band of world-benefac-

tors whose rebellion is rooted in the everlasting conflict between Good and Evil. Thus there are two Mazzinis—one who worked for his contemporaries, the other who worked for posterity. In the case of no other man of equal rank is it so necessary to distinguish clearly between the two. This we can now do without fear of misunderstanding.

Glance first at the *temporal* Mazzini. He was born in Genoa, June 22, 1805. At sixteen, the sufferings of the victims of a futile revolt burnt into his soul. The vision of freedom, and of its responsibility, haunted him. "I felt," he says, "that since we could, we ought to struggle for freedom." Ten years later he was imprisoned for many months, not for any overt act, but simply because the police had marked him as a "thinker." During his confinement, he systematized the principles to which he consecrated his life. He issued from prison only to be banished. At first from Marseilles and then from Switzerland he directed Young Italy, the society which sprang up at his call to free the Peninsula. He led an invasion into Savoy, which collapsed almost without firing a gun (1833). He was ridiculed, accused of betrayal, persecuted; and at last, at the instigation of foreign governments, Switzerland drove him out, to find refuge in London. There, in almost beggarly condition, he carried on his revolutionary propaganda, terrifying the Continental cabinets, planning fruitless insurrections, cheering the oppressed, and creating, not in Italy only, but throughout Europe, multitudes of disciples who pledged themselves to his ideals.

He could never cancel the stigma which his foes early branded on him of countenancing assassination, nor did he escape the charge of personal cowardice. As to the first, opinions still differ, and, in spite of his own avowals and those of his intimates, probably they always will; but the charge of cowardice, based on his practice of sending his followers on errands which proved deadly, may well be dismissed. He risked his own life over and over again on secret missions to Italy, and no man who bore himself as Mazzini did during the perils of the Roman Republic in 1849, lacked either fortitude or courage. Those brief months of practical dictatorship tested his ability to *do*, and although he inevitably failed, he showed both decision and foresight. Thenceforward, he fell back on conspiracy, only to be more and more discredited as his plots at Milan, at Mantua and at Genoa were smothered in blood. When Garibaldi freed the Two Sicilies, Mazzini hurried to Naples and begged the hero to organize his conquest on a Republican basis, but Garibaldi fortunately followed his own intuitions, which were usually much sounder than his reasons. So far as Italy was concerned, Mazzini ceased to be an important political factor after 1860, and, during the last ten years of his life, he saw other men, with new aims, turn aside the course of the Revolutionary Party in Europe, of which he had so long been the head. Nihilism, Anarchism, aggressive Socialism, the International, were symptoms that—speaking broadly—the Revolution had begun to pass from a strictly political to an economic and industrial stage. Mazzini himself took no satisfaction in the independence and unity of Italy, because he believed that

the monarchy would vitiate the good that had been achieved. To Daniel Stern he wrote: "Little it matters to me that Italy, a territory of so many square leagues, eats its corn and cabbages cheaper; little I care for Rome if a great European initiative is not to issue from it. What I do care for is that Italy shall be great and good, moral and virtuous, that she comes to fulfil a mission in the world." So to the end he remained officially a rebel; but Victor Emanuel's Government winked at his last visits to Italy, where he died incognito, on March 10, 1872.

Stated thus briefly, Mazzini's active career seems a failure. Externally no doubt it was. Not one of his immediate purposes bore the fruit he desired. At his death, his enemies possessed the field from which they had driven him. But, in a larger sense, he was victorious. He equipped more regiments than his adversaries knew for the unification of Italy. The life-long conspiracies in which Mazzini engaged, and which sometimes seemed to him, as they did to his contemporaries, to be his chief business in life, now turn out to belong to the transient part of him; while his immense moral energy, his obedience to ideals, and his almost unequalled genius for bringing ideals within reach of the masses, constitute his permanent greatness. The harm which he did through abortive uprisings is patent, but the good can never be measured, for it is impossible to follow the course of his regenerative influence into the myriads of hearts that he aroused. What George Meredith said many years ago, and Swinburne sang in his noblest poem, is literally true:

"But this man found his mother dead and slain,
With fast-seal'd eyes,
And bade the dead rise up and live again,
And she did rise."

Until Mazzini founded Young Italy, conspiracy had wholly a political character; he quickened it with moral aspirations. We must remember that conspiracy was the only means by which, after Waterloo, European Liberals could make their desires known; for they had neither free speech nor free press nor any voice in the government. The French Revolution, to which the downtrodden masses looked for an example, had magnified the Rights of Man; Mazzini preached the Duties of Man. He purged patriotism of selfishness. He taught that political liberty and independence must be striven for, because through them alone could every individual grow to his full stature and play a serviceable part in society. But while Mazzini wisely recognized that the individual is the cornerstone, he was no Individualist. "Collective Humanity" was his ideal—a world in which each nation, state, town, and citizen should be striving for the common welfare of the race, all exercising to the full their special energies. He would have neither Socialism, with its levelling and its strait-jacket for every talent, nor Anarchism, with its insatiate selfishness. Into the warfare between Labor and Capital he projected moral considerations. That conflict will never be settled, he held, by any mere arrangement patched up by economists. Wherever two human beings meet, no matter in what relation, there conscience joins them; and you cannot, by calling them employer and employee, settle their grievances by the economic law of supply and demand instead of by human justice and sympathy.

It would be impossible to exaggerate what Mazzini's religious awakening meant to Italy, where the Church had long since ceased to have any hold on the intelligent classes, and where it ruled the peasantry through ignorance and superstition. At most, the Church operated an apparatus of ritual, which had little to do with either true piety or noble conduct. Mazzini made his appeal directly to the individual soul. He showed the moral issue of every act, public and private. With terrible sincerity, he brought the institutions, practices, customs, and aims of the age to a Day of Judgment where Duty judged them. Duty and Fellowship—those are the words oftenest on his lips, the ideals whose beauty and majesty he celebrated throughout his life. "The earth is our workshop," he wrote; "we may not curse it, *we must hallow it.*" And again: "God will not ask us, 'What hast thou done for thine own soul?' but 'What hast thou done for the souls of others—the sister-souls I gave thee?'"

He addresses his message not to Italians only, but to men and women everywhere. It is as plain now that Mazzini was the greatest moral force in Europe during the nineteenth century, as that the world has scarcely begun to draw from him the benefits which he has to bestow. As long as he lived and was spending his energy on special enterprises, he seemed a partisan, a fanatic, an incendiary. His enemies thought that the failure of his concrete experiments discredited his principles. Now the mortal part of him has dropped away, and through those principles he will help to shape the new generations. He lives not so much by his specific teachings in politics, in social and industrial reform, in art, in literature, and in religion, as by the spirit in which he taught and by his power to stimulate and to spiritualize.

We need only to compare Mazzini with his contemporaries in the Party of Revolution in order to see how he surpasses them in significance to-day. Ledru-Rollin, Schoelcher, Louis Blanc, are scarcely more than names for our generation; Victor Hugo, the sublime rhapsodist, the inexhaustible improviser, with his colossal vanity and his pageant of rhetoric, seems now, even in his sincerest utterances, to be declaring the glory not of God, but of Victor Hugo; the grave, high-minded Herzen worked only to cure Russia's malady; Kossuth, with his magical eloquence and fiery courage, had no general message; Lassalle was fascinating, but mankind is too healthy to date a new era in its progress from a man who was killed in a duel over a courtesan; Marx, whose doctrines have had the widest vogue during the past thirty years, is essentially a materialist, a ponderous German pedant, whose remedies, if they could take effect to-morrow, would leave unsolved the fundamental human problems; even Lamennais, impassioned and sympathetic, touched but an arc of Mazzini's circle.

We must go back to Dante to find an Italian who had, like Mazzini, the combination of vivid practical intellect with a highly sensitive, even mystical, spirituality. Dante, too, plunged into political affairs, and would have reformed the abuses of his time; he, too, conspired, was banished, seemed beaten. Between him and Mazzini came Savonarola, akin to them in his fierce onslaught on iniquity, and in his apparent failure; but

compared with them he is circumscribed in genius and local in scope. As Dante spoke for the mediæval world, so Mazzini is thus far Europe's most authentic spokesman of the ideals and hopes of our new epoch. Had he not been a prophet, he might easily have taken a very high place in literature. As it is, he has left some of the profoundest literary criticism, besides political and ethical treatises of the first rank, and an extraordinary volume of living correspondence.

The beauty of Mazzini's private life reinforces all his teachings. The world, let it be never so hostile, cannot resist the argument of self-sacrifice. The lapse of time sanctifies his forty years of exile—the poor lodgings, the unstinted helpfulness, the sympathy with the joys and griefs of all with whom he had to do. He renounced home, family, even marriage, for the sake of the apostolate to which he dedicated himself. He bore up against all defeats, and conquered the desperate doubts which, in moments of reaction, rose to tempt him. One remembers his bringing up the coal for his feeble landlady, his sharing half his small earnings with strangers, his night school for the Italian bootblacks and organ-grinders in London, his attack on the "white-slave traffic." One remembers, too, his rare capacity for friendship—witness the sweetness and delicacy of those letters of his to Jane Carlyle in one of her fits of wifely jealousy. No one, it seems, could escape the spell of his presence—the spell which he imparts through his life and writings to those who never saw him. Some time ago I urged the person who, I believe, is best qualified, to give us the adequate biography of Mazzini for which the world still waits, and the reply came to me, "I cannot—I revere him too much!" That feeling of reverence comes to every one who penetrates to the heart of Mazzini's life-work.

"Dark with strife,
Like heaven's own sun that storming clouds bedim,
Was all his life.

"Life and the clouds are vanish'd; hate and fear
Have had their span
Of time to hurt, and are not: He is here,
The sunlike man."

WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

CLASSICAL STUDIES IN ROME.—II.

ROME, April 30, 1905.

Leaving out of account the University of Rome, which has a complete faculty of arts and sciences, certain characteristics of the foreign establishments deserve consideration. It will have been perceived from what I have already said that the German Institute is of the four the most strictly limited to the study of classical archaeology. From its organization, statutes and publications, I cannot discover that it has any other object than the study of ancient monuments and topography—that is to say, of archaeology in the strictest sense of the term; as was perhaps to be expected from the German tendency to specialization and to the formal subdivision of the field of knowledge. The French and British Schools are the most liberal in their scope, excluding nothing that pertains to Italian civilization in any period. It should be observed, however, that the French institution, which offers no lectures and apparently never intends to do so, expects the student to be something of a specialist when he comes. The American

School appears to occupy a somewhat medial position between these extremes. Its statutes call for "the study of classical literature in its bearing upon antiquities and history," but appear not to contemplate a study of classical literature in general. The art and archaeology of the early Christian, the mediæval and the Renaissance periods are also provided for, but it is noticeable that nothing is said about the literature or history of any of these epochs. Another circumstance that must always be borne in mind was pointed out in the columns of the *Nation* a number of years ago, namely, that whereas the chief object of the other foreign institutions in Athens and Rome has been the training of specialists, usually in archaeology, the chief function of the American Schools in both these places has been to provide American students who have already received a classical education, with a general knowledge of Greece, Italy, and their monuments before they should begin their work at home as teachers in schools and colleges.

I now wish to point out (needless to say in no unfriendly spirit) what I consider to be some defects in the methods, both of investigation and teaching, now employed by classical scholars in Rome, and this more especially with reference to the needs of American students. The difference to which I have just adverted between the American School and all the others is easily accounted for by difference of conditions. In the United States there are not many professorships of classical archaeology or curatorships of museums, while in France, Germany, and Italy there are such posts in abundance, as well as employment in connection with Government excavations; and such work, though not very lucrative, yet gives a young man enough to live on, and affords him valuable experience in preparation for his professorship or curatorship. This being true, it is certainly not wise for an American student to spend much of a usually brief sojourn in Rome hunting after potsherds and brick-stamps. But even for the non-American students I should like to suggest that the methods of study now pursued are somewhat too restricted and professional. Archaeology has by no means said its last word on the monuments that have already come to light; many new discoveries, also, are now being made and will be made in the future. Yet the danger is certainly not remote that archaeologists, trained as specialists themselves and so training their pupils after them, will continue laboring in a particular field long after it has ceased to be productive. It has, in my opinion, been partly the misfortune of classical studies in Rome that they have been developed almost exclusively by the archaeologists, who often refuse to look at anything unless it is standing in ruins or has been dug up out of the ground.

In other words, I believe that the student in Rome, more especially the American student, who rarely becomes a professional excavator or explorer of antiquities, should devote a considerable portion of his time to the art and literature of the Renaissance and mediæval periods. In support of my contention I am glad to be able to quote the authority of Mr. Norton, the director of the American School, who, in a recent report, strongly urges on his managing committee the undertaking of mediæval and Renaissance studies, and also the

requirement from all students of a reading knowledge of Italian as well as of French and German. I would direct attention, however, to the fact that it is doubtful if, according to the present rules of the American School, the study of any post-classical literature be permissible. The regulation I have already cited provides for the study of classical literature only "in its bearing upon antiquities and history," but says never a word about neo-Latin or Italian literature. I quote this provision not merely for the purpose of criticizing it individually, but also as a typical expression of the character of classical studies in Rome; for any scheme which leaves out mediæval and Renaissance art and literature is, in the broad sense of the terms, unhistorical and unphilosophical. In spite of frequent assertions to the contrary, the cataclysm of 476 did not break the continuity of history or of civilization; and a dividing line at this point is quite artificial. Few will deny, moreover, that the ancient Roman culture, considered with reference to the higher and nobler arts, was at once derivative and inferior; and that not the least of its functions was the transmission of those Hellenic ideals which helped to make the Pagan Revival, especially in Italy and England, outvie the highest achievements of the Hellenic spirit itself. And the Middle Ages, so often and so ignorantly dispraised, produced in Dante a universal genius and one of the chief purveyors of classical influence. For presumably it was not merely to devise the pleasing fiction of a personally conducted tour that Dante made Virgil his guide through Hell and Purgatory. Nor did the poet who, with sublime arrogance, placed himself among the greatest of the bards whom his vision saw, idly throw away a part of his own praise in ascribing to the constant perusal of his master's works that beautiful style which had done him honor.

The student, therefore, commits the grossest error who studies in Rome the degenerate Roman sculpture with no attention paid to Italian pictorial and plastic art; or who contents himself with what he has learned of Latin literature, and quits the country of Dante, Petrarch, and Polizian completely ignorant of their works in themselves, and of their relation to those literatures of which he is supposed to be acquiring an expert knowledge. I believe that I am upheld by the soundest modern criticism in especially urging the cultivation of Italian literature as most important for the complete training of the classical scholar. For the Italian writers, especially the poets, caught the secret of classical—that is, Hellenic—perfection of form, which English literature, in spite of its unrivalled richness and power, has attained only in exceptional instances.

Two difficulties may be urged against such a broadly inclusive plan of study: defective equipment and lack of time. The former is true only of the foreign Schools, and is fully made good by the University of Rome, where the stranger enjoys the additional advantage of not hearing lectures in his own language. Not only in the Greek and Latin languages and in classical archaeology does this institution offer excellent opportunities, but also in such subjects as comparative literature and neo-Latin. All the neo-Latin writers are not to be despised. What

better model can the classical scholar take than Politian, the greatest scholar of his age, the master of Greek and Latin prose and verse, who also perfected one of the most important poetic forms in his native tongue?

A more serious objection may be made out of the second count, that of lack of time, and it will certainly be difficult for the young classicist to include Italian art and literature within the range of his studies, if he goes through the mill of a long post-graduate course, leaving only a few months for a sojourn in Greece and Italy. Thus the question of time involves also the question whether the American student of the present (for it is he that I have chiefly in mind) ought to do most of his graduate work at home. If I, who have lived at five institutions of higher learning in the United States, and have become fairly well acquainted with a number of others, may be allowed to express an opinion, he is usually not wise in so doing, even at universities that have the appearance of being well equipped. After all, a full set of texts and German periodicals does not constitute a complete apparatus for classical study. Apart from the great stimulus that comes from living in the home of an ancient civilization, literature (and especially ancient literature) should be studied where there is a culture sufficiently firm and long-established to have produced habits of thought sympathetic with such pursuits, and to afford a background, as it were, against which the facts of literary history may be seen in proper light and perspective. The places in America of which such qualities may be predicated are so few that it would be invidious even to mention their number. In other words, I believe that a combination of the former habit of resorting to Europe after graduation, and of the recent habit of going to Greece and Italy instead of to Germany, would be the most profitable course for most Americans. Except for the Greek specialist, Italy is certainly the better country for a long residence by reason of the greater continuity of its culture.

Another most important question here involved is that of ideals of scholarship—whether for education the type of the German specialist or of the man of letters be the more desirable. However useful the American graduate schools of the present may be in serving the ends of professional scholarship, there can be no doubt that, with their wearisome grind of seminary and thesis, they are responsible for much of the dull and uninspired teaching that has gone far towards discrediting the study of the Greek and Latin languages. I am far from denying the utility of scholars who devote themselves to minute research, but that the teaching of classical literature in our country should be almost entirely in their hands is assuredly a misfortune.

H. EDMISTON.

FONTENELLE.

PARIS, May 28, 1905.

"If those whom the gods love die young, as the ancients said, Fontenelle was not among them, as he lived nearly a hundred years." Thus begins a study of Fontenelle which has just taken its place in Hachette's

series of "Les Grands Écrivains Français," and which is the work of M. Laborde-Milaâ. Fontenelle never complained of being too old, and when, in his later years, his age was alluded to, he used to put his finger on his mouth, and say, "Chut!" so as not to draw the attention of Death. His intellectual development was uninterrupted to the end, and Grimm could well write of him: "Monsieur de Fontenelle, who has just finished his career, was one of those sane men who, after having witnessed for a century all the revolutions of the human mind, have themselves effected some and paved the way for several others." The Fontenelle described by La Bruyère as a pretentious *bel esprit*, was not the philosopher that he afterwards became; his horizon was always widening.

Bernard Le Bovier de Fontenelle was born on the 11th of February, 1657; he was the nephew and godchild of Thomas Corneille, brother of the illustrious Pierre Corneille. He pursued his studies with the Jesuits in Rouen, was admitted as a lawyer to the bar of that city, and, having lost his first case, chose to adopt a literary career. He went to Paris at the age of twenty-three, and we find him in the society of his uncle Thomas, and of the writers of the *Mercurie Galant*, among whom were Bour-sault, Tallemant, and De Vîzé, the King's historiographer. He wrote verses for the *Mercurie Galant* and cultivated his taste for music and the fine arts, but we see him also manifesting great curiosity for science, which lasted all his life. He became acquainted with Lémery, one of the creators of chemistry; with Sauveur, the geometer; with some of the famous Jansenists; with the Abbé de St. Pierre and Malebranche.

La Bruyère, speaking of Cydias, is thinking of Fontenelle: "Enter his shop; you can choose; prose or verse—which will you have? Cydias succeeds equally well in both." Fontenelle's first literary essays are justly forgotten. M. Laborde-Milaâ seems to me too indulgent when he finds some resemblance between his subject and Marivaux; but it gives him opportunity to recall a circumstance very creditable to both of them. When Marivaux was ill, he received a visit from Fontenelle, who said to him: "My friend, in your situation people may have need of money; true friends ought not to wait till they are asked for it, their hearts can understand. Here is a purse of a hundred louis which I leave at your disposal." "I consider the purse received," answered Marivaux; "I have used it, and I return it to you with all the gratitude which such a service demands."

The 'Dialogues des Morts' appeared between 1682 and 1684, and had great success. People were amused at meeting in the Elysian Fields the most unexpected personages engaged in conversation—Alexander and Phryne, the Emperor Augustus and Aretino, Agnes Sorel and Roxelane, Seneca and Scarron, Plato and Margaret of Scotland, Paracelsus and Molière. The Dialogues are very paradoxical and ironical. They abound in maxims, in the style of the famous ones of La Rochefoucauld, La Bruyère, and Pascal: "Being a genius or a fool is determined by the merest nothing, by a little disposal of fibres, by something which the most accurate anatomy could not perceive." There is always an ironical vein

in Fontenelle's writings. Take, for instance, what he says about afflictions:

"An imaginary circumstance which it pleases us to add to our afflictions, is the belief that we shall be inconsolable. Not that this persuasion is not sometimes a sort of consolation; it is so in the case of pain in which we can glory, such as that we feel on the death of a friend. Then, to be inconsolable is to prove to ourselves that we do care, are tender, faithful, confident; it is to give ourselves great praise. But in circumstances when vanity does not sustain affliction, and when eternal sorrow would have no merit, let us beware of thinking that it will be eternal. We are not perfect enough to be always afflicted; our nature is too variable, and this imperfection is one of our great resources."

Fontenelle is never tired of placing intellect on a higher level than sentiment; he has an instinctive prejudice against love, women, marriage:

"Dans les nœuds de l'hymen à quel bon m'engager?
Je suis un, cela doit suffire.
Si j'étais deux, mon état serait pire;
C'est bien assez de moi pour me faire enragier."

He was all brain. Madame de Tencin once told him, putting her hand on his breast: "It is not a heart you have there; it is brains, as in your head." He would not have approved the famous maxim, "Les grandes pensées viennent du cœur." His poetical work suffered from this absence of sentiment; it was never really poetical.

The qualities of his mind were fairly shown in his critical work alone, in his extraordinary ability as a vulgarizer, an exponent of the scientific discoveries of his time. When he wrote, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, his 'Introduction to the History of the Academy of Sciences,' he spoke eloquently of the revival of mathematical and physical sciences, and of the necessity of concentrating in academies and organized scientific bodies, in all civilized countries, the researches of the astronomer, the physicist, the chemist, the botanist. He felt that between all men devoted to particular branches of science there ought to be a *trait d'union*; he had special aptitudes for uniting scientists with one another and with the public. This was the task of his life. "Scientific work," says Renan, "contains two very distinct parts; the genius of discovery, the work of original research, and the art of rendering them accessible to the public. These two parts can be properly undertaken only by the same person. Science has nothing to gain from interpreters ignorant of its methods and its ways." Fontenelle undertook to become the educator of the general public, of society, in all matters scientific. He was the prototype of a class of writers which became afterwards, especially in our time, very numerous.

His first attempt was the 'Pluralité des Mondes' (1686), which had a great vogue and which can still be read with pleasure, owing to its luminous and agreeable style. Fontenelle imagines himself walking, on a fine evening, in a park, after supper, with an amiable marchioness, his hostess at the time:

"There was a delightful coolness which recompensed us for the very warm day which we had borne. The moon had been rising for about an hour, and its rays, which reached us through the branches of the trees, made an agreeable mixture of a light whiteness with all this green which appeared dark. There was not a cloud to

obscure or to conceal the smallest star; they were all of a pure and shining gold, made more brilliant by the blue ground to which they were attached."

The conversation begins on astronomy, and Fontenelle sets forth the astronomical views of his time on the solar system, the sun, the earth, the moon, the various planets. He does it with a mixture of allusions, citations from Ariosto and Scudéry, criticisms of the older superstitions. This work marked him as a candidate for the French Academy, into which he was received on May 5, 1691. In 1701 he was elected to the Academy of Inscriptions; in 1699, the Academy of Sciences was reconstituted, and Fontenelle became, some time after, its Secretary. In that function, he pronounced the eulogies of deceased members, and made analyses and extracts of the most important Academical works. For this he was admirably suited. The collection especially of his "Eulogies," which all took a biographical form, is a document still preserved and often used. His eulogies of Malebranche, of Leibnitz, of Newton, are among the best known.

Fontenelle's philosophy is found in all his works, but never takes a dogmatic form; it can, however, be expressed in a few words. He was eminently the propagator of the notion that everything in nature is subjected to laws, and that nothing is arbitrary or independent of these laws. He considered, also, that the sciences interpenetrate and are connected together, and are really only the particular aspects of a unique and universal science, which is nothing else than the coordination of all phenomena by mathematical rules. We thus see in him a successor of the famous Descartes; he was also a great admirer of Newton, and, in his eulogy of him, written in 1727, he draws a very fine parallel between these two great masters of thought. "Both of them," he says, "were geniuses of the first order; . . . both of them were excellent geometers and saw the necessity of carrying over geometry [this word was used at the time for the mathematical sciences] into the physical sciences." M. Laborde-Millaud says justly, at the end of his work, that "for more than sixty years Fontenelle was one of the masters of French thought, and formed with Montesquieu and Voltaire a glorious trinity. He witnessed the revolution of ideas, and took his part in it with honor." He died on the 9th of January, 1757, in his house in the Rue St. Honoré, in Paris.

Correspondence.

A PETRARCH CONCORDANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The concordance of the minor Italian works of Dante, prepared by members of the Dante Society, is now in the hands of subscribers. In view of this fact, and of the interest in Petrarch stimulated less than a year ago by the celebration of the six-hundredth anniversary of his birth, the occasion seems suitable for announcing that the undersigned has begun the preparation of a concordance of Petrarch's 'Canzoniere,' and hopes to publish it within a reasonable time.

KENNETH MCKENZIE.

YALE UNIVERSITY, June 17, 1905.

THE LOTTO PORTRAIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me a word regarding the portrait by Lotto, in Vienna, of a man in three aspects, referred to in your issue of May 18. You accept my friend, Mr. Kerr-Lawson's view, recognizing the person represented as Lotto himself. This painter was born in 1480, and the picture in question bears every internal proof of having been painted no earlier than 1530. We should therefore expect the likeness of a man of fifty. But we have a man of thirty, or thirty-five at the utmost, who thus cannot have been Lotto. B. BERENSON.

I TATTI, SETTIGNANO, FLORENCE, June 4, 1905.

Notes.

'The American Catalog 1900-1905' (New York: Publishers' Weekly) makes a volume in excess of 1,200 pages, but octavo in form in place of the stately and more elegant quartos of 1876-1900. The date 1905 is exclusive; but some books so stamped, though actually printed in 1904, are included. Government and State publications are now disregarded. The second part of the old Catalogue, arranged per subject, is merged, in the present scheme, under one alphabet with the authors. Yet intimation is given of a possible supplementary volume composed of the Weekly Record of the Publishers' Weekly, with descriptive notes, arranged in yearly alphabets. If we cannot praise the linotype for its mechanical beauty in this instance, its aid to bibliography ensures full condonation.

In 'Half-Hours with the Lower Animals' (American Book Co.), Mr. C. F. Holder has endeavored to prepare a "popular combined review and supplemental reader, on the lower forms of animal life from the Amœba to the Insects, inclusive," with abundant illustrations in the text. In too many cases the adjective "popular," in connection with books on natural history, signifies "sensational and inaccurate." Mr. Holder, however, is not a mere compiler, and while his style is vivacious, his brief chapters contain little that is open to reasonable criticism. The only serious error we have noticed is his statement (p. 211) that "of all insects the fleas are the most amenable to instruction." It has long been known that the so-called "educated fleas" have neither been given nor accepted instruction of any kind; and that their struggles to get away are responsible for all the movements which superficially appear to be actuated by intelligence. The little book has much to interest young children, especially if used by an intelligent teacher in combination with object-lessons from life. Its illustrations, gathered from a variety of sources, are on the whole good, and it will doubtless serve the useful, if humble and temporary, purpose for which it is designed.

Every English county and shire produces, about every generation, a local antiquary who brings its history and its place-names up to date. Mr. W. H. Duignan's glossary, 'Worcestershire Place Names' (New York, Henry Frowde), has more than a merely local interest; for the English place-names, which nearly all have their root in Anglo-

Saxon, occur again and again throughout the whole country, and in them her early history is latent. The word "Bentley," for instance, which means 'untilled land covered with coarse grass, or bents,' is to be found as a place-name in almost every county. All such work as Mr. Duignan's has to be done afresh in our day because, before the middle of the nineteenth century, Old English was a neglected study, so that county histories of earlier date, when they give the derivation of a place-name, are usually wrong. Mr. Duignan points out that the recent Ordnance Survey maps, on which the English so implicitly rely, are inferior to the original survey. "Old names are altered without reason, and ancient sites and monuments unnoticed."

Three interesting volumes have recently been added to the series "Les Grands Artistes" published under the patronage of the Administration des Beaux-Arts (Paris: H. Laurens). In the volume entitled 'Praxitèle,' M. G. Perrot presents the results of modern investigation concerning Praxiteles, his works, and style. As is natural and proper in a small book intended for general reading, those works which have only a doubtful connection with Praxiteles are generally disregarded. Furtwängler is followed for the most part, but we are pleased to note that his ascription of the so-called Eubouleus head to Praxiteles is not accepted. The companion volume on Lysippus ('Lysippe'), by M. Collignon, contains in popular form the information available concerning this sculptor and his works. Great importance is attached to the statue of Agias, at Delphi, which is regarded as the best existing indication of the style of Lysippus. Prof. Percy Gardner's deduction, that the Apoxyomenos in the Vatican is not a copy of the statue by Lysippus, is not accepted; on the contrary, the Apoxyomenos is treated as second in importance only to the Agias. We opine that the author somewhat underrates the difference in style between the two works. Each of these volumes contains 128 pages and 24 full-page illustrations. The volume entitled 'Douris et les Peintres de Vases Grecs,' by M. E. Pottier, contains a description and discussion of the social, industrial, and artistic position of the Greek potters and vase-painters, their technical processes, and the relations of their works to literature and monumental art. Douris is chosen as the best representative of his class, not only on account of the excellence of his work, but also because his signed paintings are more numerous than those of any other vase-painter. The 24 plates are well selected and well executed. These three little books are admirable popular treatises by scholars of universally recognized distinction, who are at the same time masters of French style. We fear it will be long before any English books appear to compete with them, and in the meantime we recommend them most heartily to our readers.

The house of Cotta, famous for having originally published the works of both Goethe and Schiller, has brought out as a memorial of the centennial of the latter's death what is probably the best popular edition of his work, in sixteen volumes, bound in cloth, and costing only 32 marks. The editor is Eduard von der Hellen, who has been assisted by the well-known litterateurs Fester, Kellner, Köster, Minor,

Petersen, Erich Schmidt, Walzel, and Weisenfels. The text is accompanied by special introductions to the leading works, and by explanatory notes at the end of each volume. In the last volume are found all the known writings of Schiller not included in his "Werke"; and the first volume contains the arrangement of his writings in four groups—not in three, after the manner made current by Körner. This division Schiller himself made shortly before his death and intended for an *édition de luxe*, which, however, did not appear.

The German Asiatic Society of Japan continues its sessions and issue of scholarly papers in illustration of the civilizations of the Far East. Volume X. contains an illustrated article on the ornaments and jewels in use among the Chinese, shedding much light upon their significance and use. The paper on the Economic Development of the Hokkaido shows rapid and hopeful development of Yezo and outlying islands of the north. A brief but suggestive article on the preservation by freezing and convenient use in summer of three staples of Japanese diet, reveals methods of food preservation unknown in Europe. Of greatest literary interest is Dr. H. Haas's long chapter on the Canon of Buddhism in Japan, which has never been translated into the vernacular, though founders of new sects, notably Shinran, have added writings which are received as holy scripture by adherents of the particular sects for whom the master's communications were intended. Only those sutras belonging to continental Buddhism, and mostly of the Mahayana or Northern Vehicle, come under review, but comparison is made with the work of American and European cataloguers and commentators.

The *Korea Review* for March opens the field of Korean Conundrums, showing that the small boy in the Land of Morning Calm is very near of kin to his young American venter of puns as answers to odd questions. There is a roughly illustrated article on the minting of bronze perforated "cash," a horseload of which is required for an ordinary journey, a stalwart coolie being able to carry 60,000, or \$12 worth of money. In twenty years the Japanese dollar has so appreciated that, instead of purchasing 2,000, it can now buy 5,000 Korean cash. There is a scorching review of "the little war of 1871," as related in Rear-Admiral Schley's book, 'Forty-five Years under the Flag.' In this war several hundred Koreans were needlessly slaughtered by American marines and sailors. The editor's comment, after stating the facts inside and outside, is, "We invited an insult and then bitterly avenged it, leaving behind a hatred ten times as bitter as before, and making it impossible that any treaty should be signed until the Regent stepped down from the seat of power." The whole affair was based upon a misapprehension, and the Koreans, like the Americans, imagined that they had won a victory. The editorial notes report continued exploitation of the country's mineral wealth by foreigners.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for June contains a detailed description, with twenty charts, of the methods adopted by the Weather Bureau for forecasting the weather, by its chief, Dr. W. L. Moore. It is a chapter from his forthcoming work, 'The New Meteorology,' and, it should be said, is too technical to be easily under-

stood by the casual reader. In his section on tornadoes Dr. Moore characterizes as ridiculous the shooting at hail clouds as practised in parts of France and Italy. Consul J. C. Covert of Lyon, says, on the contrary, in the Daily Consular Reports, January 7, 1905, that the recorded losses from hail in a certain district in France, consisting of sixteen communes, during the fifteen years before cannon were used, was more than two and a half million dollars. In the five years in which cannon have been in use the losses in this district aggregated \$159,412, while in the year 1904 there were no losses whatever—a fact which is attributed entirely to the use of the cannon. Rear-Admiral C. E. Clark contributes a note on the population of China, which he believes to be estimated at twice the correct total. From personal observations during his three years' service on the Asiatic Station, which included a trip 1,000 miles into the interior, he thinks there are less than two hundred millions of people. Still, it should be noted that he did not visit the most densely populated region, the province of Szechuen. A War Department map of the present seat of war in Manchuria is given as a supplement to this number.

The proposed merger with Technology cuts a large figure in the current quarterly issue of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, both in a documentary way and in Professor Shaler's genial sketch of the late Gordon McKay, whose millions and testamentary purposes are at stake. Effectively, if not formally, this writer casts his vote contra. A portrait of Mr. McKay accompanies the article, and there is another of George Walker Weld, a generous boating patron of the University, and a third of the late James C. Carter, still another benefactor, of high personal distinction. If we miss anything in Mr. John Noble's sketch of Mr. Carter, it is mention of the permanence of the stamp of rustic simplicity in this country-born lawyer, the utter absence of affectation or self-consciousness, which lent personal weight of honesty to the arguments of a great advocate. A group of portraits of eminent members of the class of 1855 instructively offsets one of the first eight of the Phi Beta Kappa men of 1906—a happy innovation *honoris causa*. Other matters of interest are the movement for a teachers' endowment fund; the purchase of Professor Norton's library for ultimate incorporation in the University Library, and raising of a fund for its renewal; and the essay of a Harvard Travellers' Club, which deserves more support than it has apparently received.

The current volume of Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester last October, and in special meetings of the Council on the deaths of Egbert Coffin Smyth and Senator Hoar, contains the will of Thomas Hore of Bristol, England, a bourgeois of considerable wealth, who bequeathed to the city his oak chest. Upon the discovery of the will two years ago, Senator Hoar instituted researches which unearthed the chest in the garret of the Council House. It has meantime presumably been placed in the National Museum. A picture of this interesting relic accompanies the will. Mr. Hoar, relating the above circumstances to the Society in October, 1903, spoke of his ancestor as also

one from whom Holmeses, Lowells, Quincys, John Adams and his posterity, Prescotts, and many other distinguished families and individuals were descended. It would be a curious service for some trusty genealogist to display these and many similar New England connections, in an authentic manner.

The experiment of a "Reformgymnasium" with the classical languages eliminated in the lower forms, and their place taken by scientific studies, does not satisfy the teachers of secondary schools in Germany. The Bavarian philological State convention held in Würzburg has pronounced against the innovation, chiefly on the basis of the report of its official visitor, Dr. Henrich, to the model Frankfurt Reformgymnasium. He testified to an excellent teaching corps and good material in the Frankfurt school, but maintained that the results were in no way superior to those of the classical gymnasium. A similar report was presented by a university professor. The twelve hundred philologists assembled unanimously agreed to petition the Government to have nothing to do with the "Reform" educational scheme.

The current annual expenses for the higher educational institutions of Prussia have increased enormously during the past three decades, both absolutely and relatively. In 1870 there were 412 such institutions in that kingdom, with an enrolment of 101,772. Now there are 652 schools, with an enrolment of 174,467. The expenses in 1870 were about seven and a half million marks; in 1892 these had increased already to more than thirty millions, and according to the last annual report published the amount was 50,249,120 marks. Of this nearly twenty million was returned in tuition fees, the rest coming from the State treasury (some twelve and a half million) and from endowment funds. In 1870 the average cost for each pupil was 73.1 marks, but now it has risen to the extraordinary figure of 288 marks. The heaviest item in the expenses is the salaries of the teaching corps, which have increased from five and a half million in 1870 to twenty-four million in 1892, and to 42,580,655 marks at present. In other words, the salary charge at the Prussian universities and secondary schools is six and a half times what it was three decades ago, while the teaching corps has only been about doubled during that time.

The programme of the Economic Expansion Congress, to be held at Mons, Belgium, next September, and at which the Belgian Government is particularly desirous that the United States should be officially represented, shows a wide range of subjects to be discussed. Education is the topic of the first of the six sections, and the main question is whether training for a business career should begin in the elementary and secondary schools, or be confined to the high schools and universities, and what are the best methods of instruction. Another section relates to the development of semi-civilized countries, and stress is laid on the inquiry how best to acquire a scientific knowledge of the social condition, habits and customs of the natives, and to raise them to a higher level of civilization. Questions of political economy and customs tariffs and navigation, including subsidies, are to be discussed, and an effort will be made to formu-

late a system of international statistics or a uniform method of classification of commercial data in order to render comparison more easy. The last section treats of the creation of a foreign trade, with special emphasis on Government aid through consular reports, floating museums, and permanent exhibitions.

—It can scarcely have been the intention of the Secretary of the Royal Academy, in compiling 'The Royal Academy and its Members, 1768-1830' (London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), to show how undistinguished, in the main, have been the members of that body, but that is what he has done. Of the more than one hundred artists who attained to Academicianship in the first sixty years of the Academy's existence, and concerning whom some biographical information is here afforded us, about thirty, on a liberal reckoning, may be known by name to the well-informed student of art, while not more than ten or eleven are to be seriously considered as of some real importance in art history. Of the Associates elected during these same years who did not attain the higher honor, only one, Washington Allston, has a name that means anything to us to-day. And these were the palmy days of the Academy. The list of Academicians elected since 1830 contains even fewer names of any real distinction. The list of Associates of this second period is, on the other hand, a little better than the earlier one, owing to the presence of the names of two or three men who died young—Fred. Walker's being the most prominent—and of two or three who should have been Academicians, but were not, foremost of these being Burne-Jones. A curious feature of the roll of the Academy, from the beginning until now, is the number of names of foreigners which it contains. The earlier portion of Mr. F. A. Eaton's book has a certain odd sprightliness, in parts, and a dash of humor, which would seem to be owing to the collaboration of J. E. Hodgson, R. A. It also contains an occasional bit of criticism of some value. The later pages, where G. D. Leslie, R. A., succeeds to Mr. Hodgson, are better written but duller. Mr. Eaton's own contributions to the history of the Academy as an institution, and the appendices which he has provided, have a certain value and will occasionally prove useful to the student. The book is commendably light in the hand, has eleven good illustrations, mostly photogravures, and is dedicated, by permission, to his Majesty, King Edward VII.

—'The Adventures of King James II.' (Longmans) is a fresh study of court and political life in the seventeenth century by that anonymous writer whose 'Falklands' and 'Life of Sir Kenelm Digby' we have noticed on former occasions. Apart from the interest which the book possesses in itself, it has another claim to attention from the fact that, prefixed to the text, there stands an introduction by Dr. F. A. Gasquet, Abbot President of the English Benedictines. Macaulay said of James II. that "to his policy the English Roman Catholics owed three years of lawless and insolent triumph and a hundred and forty years of subjection and degradation." This statement is in no sense an exaggeration, and one is always curious to see what at-

titude will be assumed by the modern Catholic historian towards the character of the King who strove so hard on behalf of Rome that his efforts ended in such complete disaster. Father Ethelred Taunton fastens the blame for James's ill-timed policy upon the Jesuits. Father Gasquet has nothing to say about the Jesuits, but deals rather severely with the King himself for having overstepped all limits of reason. "His abolition of the Test Acts, under cover of the Royal Dispensing Power, however legal from a constitutional point of view, under which alone it had the sanction of the majority of the judges, was a mistake, if not a crime." On the score of religious partisanship, the strongest plea which is made on behalf of James in this volume takes a negative form, the author stating that, "even if he had gone beyond toleration and re-established the Catholic religion, there is nothing to show the least likelihood that he would have introduced penal laws against Protestants resembling in severity those then existing in England against Catholics." On the testimony of Lord Acton, Wiseman once asked Doellinger what pope there was whose good name had not been vindicated, and Doellinger's reply, that Boniface VIII. wanted a friend, prompted both Wiseman's article and Tosti's book. By way of contrast, the writer of this biography, though he says what good can be said of James II., is not looking around for an unpopular Catholic to be rehabilitated. Having pointed out that James is commonly judged by the part of his life which falls within a brief reign rather than in the light of his whole career, he sets out to write a personal narrative rather than a political estimate. Here James, the brave soldier, industrious seaman and faithful friend, is set out in contrast to the more unprincipled figures of the Restoration court. That the Duke of York was for some years lawless in his amours is freely admitted, but much stress is laid upon his subsequent remorse. The author of this book is an old hand at criticism as well as at biography, and well knows the dangers which arise from over-statement of one's own case. Accordingly, he does not permit his tone to become unduly controversial, nor does he lose sight of his avowed purpose to make his sketch a tale of adventure rather than a plea of extenuation. While less convincing than Dr. Airy's life of Charles II., this volume has the merits which are represented by a fulness of information and incisive writing.

—Ida Freund's 'The Study of Chemical Composition' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a work upon a novel plan. A sub-title informs us that it is an account of the method of that study and its historical development, with illustrative quotations. Another feature of it is that it selects the most instructive examples and sedulously avoids all appearance of giving complete details of anything; showing, for example, the general plan and results of the best determinations of the atomic weights of more than half of the elements, but saying nothing about the atomic weights of the others, nor generally about other determinations of those that are referred to. Its historical parts go back to the phlogistic period and even earlier. We cannot see how the plan could

have been carried out with greater skill; and it is an excellent plan, provided the narrow limitations of its utility be recognized. To a professional student of chemistry it will afford amusement, and here and there call his attention to a stray fact or consideration. To a non-professional student it presents the disadvantage that, after he has gone through it, it will not serve as a handbook; but he will be driven to handbooks of which he has made no study, and which very likely falsify their names in not being at hand. Nevertheless, to such a student it offers the signal advantage that, if the study of it be supplemented by a few months of entire absorption in laboratory work, it will furnish him with very nearly such *aperçus* of this branch of science as the real researcher in it has. The authoress has evidently held this purpose steadily in view, and accordingly directs attention at each epoch of each problem to its logical aspects; and her opening chapter is devoted to the method of the inductive sciences, a subject to which the historical method is more advantageously applicable than to chemistry. Unfortunately, she has made no exact study of scientific logic, and both this chapter and other parts of her book have suffered grievously from this deficiency.

—'Die Doppelhe des Landgrafen Philipp von Hessen,' by Dr. W. W. Rockwell of the Andover Theological Seminary (Marburg: N. G. Elwert), has a double claim to notice. The work done by American students in Germany, however creditable it may be on the whole, seldom reaches in either scope or quality the level of excellence here attained. And even if this were not a striking example of thesis literature at its best, the intrinsic importance of the subject might well lead us to comment upon a new and learned treatment of it. Ever since Luther's own lifetime, great scandal has been caused by the attitude of Protestant theologians towards Philip of Hesse's bigamy. How, it is asked, could the men of Wittenberg, with the nineteenth chapter of St. Matthew before them, have consented to sanction such a breach of the moral law and the divine command? What Roman Catholic controversialists have had to say regarding Lutheran antinomianism derives its chief color from this episode, and even Köstlin admits that Luther's part in the matter is the chief blot on his career. Unfortunately, all the *prima-facie* considerations seem to point in one direction. Philip of Hesse was, politically speaking, the bulwark of the Lutheran cause—a man whose defection would have been a serious blow. This being the case, it is hard to convince one's self that Luther and Melancthon did not cut a sharp corner, and connive at the immorality of a powerful supporter for the sake of keeping him on their side. Dr. Rockwell, however, does not accept the traditional view, nor does he assume an apologetic tone. While criticizing the position of Roman Catholic writers, his real attack is delivered upon the confession of Köstlin that Luther did himself little credit in winking at the Landgrave's sins. The question is considered from many standpoints, and the views of all the leading reformers are introduced into the discussion. But, taken as a study with a motive, this monograph centres in Luther rather than in Philip. Dr. Rock-

well's statement of the circumstances, though adequate, is not the vital part of his work. From a particular instance he passes on to a general account of the views which were held on the subject of polygamy during the age of the Reformation. Obviously the Old Testament was a magazine of arguments for one side of the question; and the best that can be said on Luther's behalf is this—that while, on the one hand, he found an undoubted precedent in the example of the patriarchs, on the other, he could not discover in the New Testament a distinct and unequivocal prohibition. Dr. Rockwell shows great straightforwardness and learning in his treatment of this difficult theme. He has written the most thorough account of the incident which we have yet seen; nor is it likely that many studies of equal value emerge even from the seminar of Mirbt.

—For nine years, beginning with the "Midsummer Night's Dream" in 1895, the "Senior Dramatics" at Smith College were occupied solely with Shakspeare, and every season with a different play. Last year a breach was made by the performance of "Sakuntalā." Last week there was a wise return to the original source of inspiration; and if the repertory was not extended, the repetition of "As You Like It," first essayed in 1896, was a virtual novelty—of course altogether such so far as the participants were concerned, the "management" alone remaining the same. The result amply justified the decision of the class, and has probably fixed the Shaksperian loyalty of the College for an indefinite period. In other words, every year there will be a Shaksperian representation in Northampton; and of how many American cities can that be said? In how many cases, moreover, that the quality of the professional performance equals in general evenness of talent, intelligence, and refinement the amateur work of these young women? In this latest instance, in place of a star *Rosalind* and a scratch company, the three leading romantic rôles were sustained by actors strongly competing in merit, and, as it happened, in physical beauty; and, throughout, the attention of the audience was firmly held by the action. The comic parts were relatively less well done—less adequately, perhaps, than has been common heretofore; in these the sententious character of the text called for especial distinctness and weight of delivery. On the other hand, there was no overdoing of the "business." The scenic effects were pleasing, and the magic of the poet's diction effaced all minor defects inseparable from the personation of one sex by the other, just as the primitive stage-setting was effaced in Shakspeare's own day. There remained, besides, a sense of grace and breeding not to be experienced in an ordinary playhouse.

RUSSIA VIEWED BY TWO OBSERVERS.

Russia in Revolution. By G. H. Perris. With illustrations. London: Chapman & Hall, Ltd. 1905.

Russia as It Really Is. By Carl Joubert. London: Everleigh Nash; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1905.

Mr. Perris's point of view is clearly indicated by the quotation (which he uses as a motto on the title-page) of a phrase from

the communication of Prince Trubetzky, president of the Moscow Zemstvo, to Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky, in December, 1904: "What is passing [does he mean "taking place?"] at present is not a simple riot, but a revolution." His aim is to set forth the whole political history of Russia, from the beginning of its existence as a State, and especially during the last thirty-five years, down to April of the present year. After a succinct survey of "Natural Conditions: Geographical, Climatic, Economic," he proceeds to "Historical Conditions," and remarks: "The system of absolute monarchy is, in fact, deeply rooted in the natural history, and closely bound up with the geographical situation, of the country." On the following page he says:

"Western carpet-baggers talk of the Slav being incapable of self-government. The fact is that, down to this day, the humble muzhik has enjoyed a power over the essential conditions of life, political and economic, such as the Western peasant has not possessed since the dawn of the Middle Ages; and in the form of the artel, or co-operative society, he maintains his collectivism even in the strongholds of modern machine industry."

These quotations will serve to show Mr. Perris's sincere effort to be fair and impartial, but the same paragraph furnishes two other quotations which equally well illustrate his defective vision in consequence of his prejudice against nearly everything in Russia in its present form.

"The virus of Byzantism," he says, "was even more deadly in the East than that of Romanism in the West. It gave a simple pagan people something of culture, something of ethics and philosophy; but it gave these in a degraded form, and one peculiarly mischievous in that it cut them off from Western thought by its separate alphabet and language, art, and political ideals. . . . On the religious side, as on the political, it may be said that, while the Orthodox (which does not even pretend to be a Catholic) Church helped at the outset to maintain the national spirit amongst [against?] the invader, that justification has long disappeared."

The remark about the alphabet and the language, so easily applied in numerous other cases, is amusing. As to the Orthodox Church, Mr. Perris is misinformed: it claims the title of "Catholic," and professes to be the original "Catholic" Church, as a would-be authoritative writer should know. A little further on, he alludes to "the great movement of religious dissent, the immediate cause of which was the arbitrary innovations of the Patriarch Nikon"—the fact being that Nikon made no innovations whatever, but merely had clerical and similar errors corrected in the Scriptures and Church Service books. Mr. Perris pays his respects, in the same spirit and degree of weight, to the Church and its affairs and acts, at intervals throughout his book. Under the heading, "The Oligarchy," he sets forth the machinery of the Government, the councils, and the character of their members and their actions; and, having described the confusion of the labyrinthine laws under the caption of "The Land without Law" (all this is rather difficult reading, partly by reason of its conciseness), he enters upon the most interesting part of his subject, the real topic of his work. He has collected a number of first-hand accounts from political prisoners, of a sort with which the world has already been made familiar by previous writers, and which may be accepted with some reserves,

When, however, Mr. Perris himself undertakes to summarize a situation or narrate as historian, he is not always properly equipped.

For example, in speaking of the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul, he says: "Here the Decembrist leaders were buried"—presumably intending the reader to understand that they died there. Most of them were sent to Siberia, and, when they were pardoned, a majority refused to return to Russia because of their love for Siberia. Again, a more important instance; in discussing "The Annals of Schlüsselburg," Mr. Perris alludes to the sad fate of several prisoners, stating, among other things, that a certain one, condemned in the "Trial of the Fourteen," went insane in 1884. We are at liberty to infer that he also died, like others mentioned, in similar circumstances. This man (whose vocation is wrongly stated) was sent to Sakhalin, where he served the Government well, and later spent a couple of years in Siberia. In 1896 he returned to Russia; he has had all his privileges and rank restored to him, has been sent by the Government on more than one important expedition, and is at present serving in a position of trust in one of the Ministries. The amusing feature of this case (so far as Mr. Perris is concerned) is, that on page 125 he remarks that he has copied three illustrations from a book "by a former exile, Mr. Mirolubov," which appeared in the *Russian Historical Review*. He is, apparently, not aware that "Mr. Mirolubov" is the pen-name of his "insane" prisoner at Schlüsselburg; and that the man in question is a regular and valued contributor, under his own signature, not only to the *Historical Review*, but to other publications. We may remark, in parenthesis, that the name "Mirolubov" was compounded by the ex-political from the words *mir* (peace) and *lubov* (love), which he has taken as his motto, asserting that the Government treated him exactly right, and that peace and love are the only legitimate or valid weapons, not violence or revolution.

On page 101 the author, in speaking of the Emperor, says: "When, as Tsesarevitch, he visited Siberia, he was believed to have personally inspected the condition of the political exiles. He really did and could do nothing of the kind, for the political's were carefully removed or put out of sight before his passage." Again there is some misunderstanding, or misrepresentation. The writer of these lines received a letter at the time from a friend who lived at one of the important towns in Eastern Siberia visited by the then Tsesarevitch and was present at his reception, and who wrote: "The condition of the political's here is totally misunderstood abroad. When the Tsesarevitch came through, there were political's appointed on the reception committee, here as elsewhere in Siberia; and he shook hands with them and talked with them exactly as he did with the Governor." Again, the case of "Mr. Mirolubov" above cited refutes a statement on page 120 about Sakhalin: "A man or woman deported to this hermetically sealed island is lost to the world." More serious is the assertion, commonly but falsely made by revolutionists and their foreign sympathizers, that "the peasants have been of deliberate policy kept in a condition of degrading ignorance and subservience;" and that, "through its [the Holy Synod's] State-protected network of village

schools, any substantial advance of elementary education in the Empire is effectually stopped." Without entering into details, it may be stated as a fact that the whole question of schools or their absence is, primarily and mainly, one of economics—on the part of the State and Synod, how to provide the immense means required; on the part of the peasants, how to spare the labor of children of school age.

Many writers have approved of the Government monopoly of liquor; our author does not. Neither does he approve of M. Witte, by many regarded as a great statesman and financier. He declares that most of the latter's "huge transactions" were "mischievous, burdensome, and perilous in a high degree," but later on he admits that "M. Witte, when all criticisms have been uttered, is a great administrator, with an ambition equal to that of Cecil Rhodes, and an executive capacity almost comparable to that of Lord Cromer"; and that the establishment of the spirit monopoly and other important acts were "colossal designs." One sentence (in Mr. Perris's chapter on "The Tariff"), will make many Americans wince, while they smile; "The whole of the manufacturing class is reduced to a servile position; it is encouraged, even compelled—this is the whole *raison d'être* of the system—to sell dear at home and cheap abroad." When he comes to the discussion of the present war with Japan, he frankly acknowledges that "Great Britain made this war possible when she concluded the treaty of 1902, and so lay under a secondary responsibility," and that "with Japan lies the responsibility of forcing on hostilities"; but when he asserts, a little further on, in a list of Russia's crimes, that "it has maintained upon his throne Abdul the Assassin, with license to slaughter the Armenians at will," he is less frank, and will surprise those who have regarded it as conceded that England is responsible for the maintenance of the condition of affairs in Turkey.

The biographies and autobiographies of the propagandists, Tchaikovsky, Volkhovsky, Stepniak, and others, at times repeat, at times supplement, previous narratives; and again, some are entirely fresh. All are of the greatest interest, as are, also, the chapters on "The New Generation" (including the students and their agitations), "The Rise of the Labour Movement," and "Bloody Sunday: A Broken Idol." The author's interpretations of events—even his statements of facts—do not always accord with interpretations and statements from equally (if not more) authoritative and competent sources; but such a compact and regular narrative of events from one point of view is undeniably valuable. In his concluding chapter, "The Prospects of the Revolution," the author tries his hand at prophecy, in hopeful vein. On the whole, he has performed well a difficult task, and his book, subject to the cautions we have suggested, may be recommended as both important and useful. Of the illustrations, most of them fairly well reproduced, and some without much point, the best and most interesting are the portraits of the "politicals" and propagandists.

"Russia As It Really Is" is one of the most curious and puzzling books it has been our lot to see for a long time. In his preface the author mentions the numerous works on the subject already extant, and declares, with sweeping denunciation,

that "all are written from the point of view either of the traveller, or of the alien politician, who seeks to demonstrate the effects of Russian expansion on the policy of his own particular country. Some have been written with scanty knowledge and restricted powers of observation; others are dependent on official information for the facts (?) which they set forth." He then states that a couple of books on Russia had been recently presented to him by their author, and, after reading, he "pondered how those books could have been written, published, and sold to the public. They purported to describe Russia—it might almost as well have been Timbuctoo." The reader of Mr. Joubert's book is, on the whole, forced to ponder along the same lines; particularly in view of his statement that he has lived nine years in Russia, has visited every Government in the empire, has associated with every class, and "acquired the languages of the country, Russian and corrupt Russian, Polish, Lettish, Lithuanian, and Yiddish." After this preamble, downright amazement seizes upon the reader with the opening paragraphs of the book proper. "His Imperial Majesty, Emperor Nicolas Alexandrovitch, Autocrat of All the Russias," he writes. "By these and many other titles is he known—the Holy Tsar of Russia. He himself has commanded that he should be so called; for no subject can give him honors and titles. And, therefore, is he known as *Zembla Bogh*—'The God on Earth,' 'The Pope of the Greek Church,' 'The Master and Maker of the Holy Synod,' 'The Adjuster of the Earth,' 'The Peace and Goodwill on Earth.' For Russia is the Tsar, the Tsar is Russia. The Synod belongs to the Pope; and the Pope is the Tsar, and the Tsar is God on earth"—with more to the same purpose. As a matter of fact, the Emperor bears not a single one of the alleged titles, self-conferred or otherwise, except that of autocrat; moreover, there is no such word in the Russian language as "*zembla*," though the expression "*Zembla Bogh*" is such a favorite with our writer that he uses it constantly throughout his volume, as though the title and the actual words were the most commonly current in Russia.

The chapter on "The Holy Church" is replete with curiosities. "The Metropolitan," he says, "by order of the Tsar, arrange the ritual to be observed in the churches," and this assertion is made concerning a church whose pride it is that its ritual has been fixed for centuries! More extraordinary yet is the assertion that different brands of "superstition" are deliberately supplied to the inhabitants of different parts of the empire, with the general intent of keeping them from dangerous thoughts. The author has mistaken the popular folk-lore, the tradition of ages, so highly prized by scientific observers, but warred against by the Church, for something entirely different. It is needless to enter into further details; but it may interest Mr. Joubert to learn that he is mistaken in an ordinary matter of fact when he speaks of "the great Church of the Annunciation, where the Czar assumes the crown, paved with jasper, carnelian, and agate." The Tsar assumes the crown in the Cathedral of the Assumption; and the neighboring tiny Cathedral of the Annunciation is paved with jasper only. One wonders how acute the observation of more recondite matters

can be. As the war in the Far East has set an entirely new standard of indifference to the life of soldiers in general, we need not pause over Mr. Joubert's views upon the attitude, on that score, of Russian officers, which contradicts the views of many previous writers.

In view of what has been said concerning the missionaries (of England in particular) as the "advance-agent of annexation," and particularly in view of England's recent expedition to Lhasa, the brief chapter on "The Missionary" is merely amusing. The premature graduation last February of medical students whose services were needed in the Far East is misrepresented. The rough-and-ready statement of the censor's duties is incorrect. The large section devoted to "The Jew in Russia" is interesting, especially on its anecdotal side (as is the whole book), but neither novel, profound nor exhaustive. The volume seems to have been written, in truth, for the sake of the story contained in Part III., entitled "A Power above the Tsar," which monopolizes one-half of its bulk. The power referred to is money, which Mr. Joubert discreetly employed to rescue from Siberia a scientific friend, condemned to exile on slight grounds. The tale is of absorbing interest, though everything happens exactly as in a well-regulated fairytale—by which we do not mean in the least to impugn its veracity, but merely to intimate that it is a case where the truth is stranger than fiction.

There is one point, however, to which we have already referred, and which is brought forward again very prominently in this connection, namely, the author's firm belief in his perfect knowledge of the Russian language. He even explicitly declares that he can talk Russian better than he can English, and sets out in quest of his missing friend disguised as a Russian. It was partly on this ground that we characterized the book, at the outset, as curious and puzzling. As it has run into the seventh edition in the course of as many months, and therefore ample opportunity has been afforded for revision, the Russian language as it appears in these pages must, in justice, be accepted as representing the author's proficiency in it. The great majority of the words and expressions are incorrect. Admitting that Stambov (for Tambov) is a typographical error, Yaroslaff (for Yaroslavl) is not. In describing the costume of the peasant man and woman, Mr. Joubert calls their coat a *shinell*. The waist-fitting, knee-length sheepskin *tulup* of the peasant (or even the occasional cloth coat on the same lines) is entirely different from the long, flowing *shinell* of the officer or civilian, with its pendent sleeves and deep cape. Even nine years of familiarity with the ordinary Christian names and patronymic formations have, apparently, not initiated Mr. Joubert into that simple lore. For instance, "Petrushka" is the diminutive of Piotr, not (as represented) of "Petrus." Still more surprising is the confusion (page 45) over Ilya and its derivative. "What is your name, brother?" he asked. "Ivan Ilyitchovitch." "Is it possible that your father's name was Ilyitch? . . . I went up to Ivan Ilyitchovitch." The father's name was Ilya (Elijah), and the son's could have been nothing else than "Ivan Ilyitch"; Ilya being one of the rare, irregular excep-

tions to the formation of the patronymic. Mr. Joubert represents the priest in Siberia as calling him "paltchik mola," having previously defined *paltchik* as 'little boy.' The word is "maltchik," and, being masculine, should not be accompanied by a feminine adjective. "Nasha Russki Mal-latchi! (our Russian bravery)" is, probably, intended for "nashi Russkie molodtzi (our brave Russian fellows.)" If the simulated Russian (Mr. Joubert was, by advice, happily not simulating at the moment in question) had used one feminine and one masculine adjective, both in the singular number, with a masculine noun in the plural, as he represents, his disguise would have been easily penetrated, though *falkas* (rolls) for *bulki* might possibly pass muster.

SHAKESPEAREAN TRAGEDY.

Shakespearean Tragedy. By A. C. Bradley, Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1904.

To the reader seriously interested in literary scholarship, no book more cheering than this has appeared for many years. Much of our criticism is so superficial, much of our learned writing so dry, that the publication of a work solidly based on erudition, marked everywhere by keen insight and fine judgment, and abounding in fresh and stimulating ideas, is a great literary event. That the powers implied in these qualities should have been employed in the interpretation of the supreme masterpieces of our literature, is still further a cause for the heartiest congratulation.

It is easy, in these days of the laborious investigation of detail, for the scholar to lose sight of the ultimate aim. Yet in his saner moments the most uninspired of philological diggers, or the most curious hunter after

"two points in Hamlet's soul
Unseized by the Germans yet,"

admits that the defence of his work lies in the hope that it may contribute to some far-reaching generalization, or to the better interpretation of some great work of art. It is to be sorrowfully admitted that the mind capable of using the results of research for these grand purposes appears only at rare intervals. Here once more, however, it has appeared, and it is to be welcomed with enthusiasm and gratitude.

The plan of Dr. Bradley's book is simple. After a short introduction, the author proceeds to the discussion of the substance of Shaksperian tragedy, of the construction of the tragedies, and of Shakspeare's tragic period. These three lectures serve for the exposition of the main ideas forming the background of the subsequent treatment of the four great tragedies, "Hamlet," "Othello," "Lear," and "Macbeth," to each of which two lectures are devoted. Some thirty notes on moot questions lying aside from the main lines of interpretation close the volume, and are of especial interest to the professed student.

A serious difficulty confronts the critic who would deal with matters already so much discussed as those just enumerated. If account is taken of the large amount of even valid and plausible interpretation that has already been made, the bulk of a book on Shaksperian tragedy will be swollen almost beyond bounds; if things already well done are silently passed over, the work will

be apt to suffer in proportion, and to be misleading to all but specialists. Nothing proves Dr. Bradley's literary tact more conclusively than his treatment of this dilemma. He never descends to mere recapitulation, yet, while using most of his space for discussions where he has something individual to contribute, he seldom fails to keep perspective, and to indicate sufficiently the views of the more important of his predecessors. No one who has essayed to write freshly on a well-worn theme will fail to perceive the distinction of such an achievement.

An idea of the actual method of the book may be gathered from an outline of Dr. Bradley's treatment of the fundamental question of Shakspeare's conception of tragedy. It is to be noted at the outset that it is the Shaksperian tragic conception that is dealt with, not the Aristotelian, or any a-priori theory. In other words, Dr. Bradley attempts to extract from Shakspeare's tragedies themselves the dramatic theory which undoubtedly underlies them (whether or no it was ever explicit and conscious in the mind of the dramatist), just as Aristotle derived his theory of tragedy from the actual works of the Greek dramatists of his time. Aristotle's results are inevitably in the author's mind, but they do not dominate, as they have so often dominated in critical attempts to state the theory of Elizabethan dramatic art. Beginning with the mediæval conception of tragedy as a story of the terrifying downfall of a man of high estate, he shows how this persists in Shakspeare, but how it has added to it certain further elements. First, this downfall is the culmination of a series of human actions, and these actions are due to character. Next, though abnormal mental conditions, insanity, hallucinations, and the like, are admitted, these are not the causes of deeds important for the development of the plot, but are rather symptoms or consequences. If they were main causes, the first statement that the action must be caused by characteristic deeds would not be true. The bearing of this on, *e. g.*, the question of Hamlet's madness is obvious. Similarly, though the supernatural is frequently introduced, it enters the action only in close relation with character, and never so as to deprive the tragic hero of the power and responsibility of deciding his own line of conduct. Finally, chance is allowed a part in the action, *e. g.*, in the determination of the fatal moment when Desdemona drops her handkerchief. But this part is always subordinate, and never crosses, but only hastens or confirms, a course of action already set agoing by character. This statement of the nature and elements of Shaksperian tragedy is supplemented by a consideration of the Hegelian view of tragedy as a conflict between the hero and a hostile force; but this Professor Bradley regards as an inadequate formula for Shaksperian tragedy on account of the importance, in the tragedies of Shakspeare's maturity, of a conflict *within* the hero's soul.

So much for the tragic action. Shaksperian tragedy is characterized also by a particular type of hero. The tragic hero is not merely a person of exceptional position enduring extreme calamity; he is also marked by "a fatal tendency to identify the whole being with one interest, object, pas-

sion, or habit of mind." He is not always "good," as the Greek tragic hero had to be, but he is always on a great scale. This greatness it is which prevents a Shaksperian tragedy from depressing us. Whether the catastrophe involve the destruction of a superb villain like Richard III. or Macbeth, or the heart-rending downfall of an Othello, we are kept clear of cynicism by a picture of the tremendous possibilities of human nature. This sense of the greatness of humanity as displayed in the tragic hero points to what Dr. Bradley calls "the centre of tragic impression—the impression of waste." If human nature be so beautiful or so great, why must it suffer so and be so thrown away? To this question the dramatist gives us no answer. It is the fundamental mystery which leaves us awed and solemnized at the close of the drama, as it is the fundamental mystery which remains unsolved in life.

But in this world of tragedy, in which the mysterious waste of greatness is the essential tragic fact, what is the dominating power? The two opposing answers that have usually been given are both set aside as inadequate. It cannot be an omnipotent, just, and benevolent power, or it would not leave us with the closing sense of mysterious suffering and waste. It cannot be sheer fate, either blind or malicious, for then it would leave us rebellious, which the great tragedies do not. Something of both forces we seem to feel. The suffering, though often not entirely deserved, is at least largely traceable to the hero's weakness or crime. Yet the forces set in motion by such weakness or crime seem augmented by chance coincidences which produce a train of consequences leading far beyond what the human agent intended or conceived. Man is seen as a child starting some tremendous machine which he can neither understand nor control, but which, on the other hand, never starts of itself, as it does in Greek tragedy. If man is not supreme, he is never mere victim. Further, it is misleading to speak of the order of the world, moral or other, as something detached from man and his activities. The hero, and the weakness or wickedness which leads to his destruction, are part of this order, which is to be viewed as a system striving to purge itself of a poison, and in doing so sacrificing much in itself that is innocent and wholesome.

"Sometimes," indeed, "from the very furnace of affliction a conviction seems borne to us that somehow, if we could see it, this agony counts as nothing against the heroism and love which appear in it and thrill our hearts. Sometimes we are driven to cry out that these mighty or heavenly spirits who perish are too great for the little space in which they move, and that they vanish not into nothingness but into freedom. Sometimes from these sources and from others comes a presentiment, formless but haunting, and even profound, that all the fury of conflict, with its waste and woe, is less than half the truth, even an illusion, 'such stuff as dreams are made of.' But these faint and scattered intimations that the tragic world, being but a fragment of a whole beyond our vision, must needs be a contradiction and no ultimate truth, avail nothing to interpret the mystery. We remain confronted with the inexplicable fact, or the no less inexplicable appearance, of a world travelling for perfection, but bringing to birth, together with glorious good, an evil which it is able to overcome only by self-torture and self-waste. And this fact or appearance is tragedy."

The independence and profundity of

thought implied in this induction are characteristic of Dr. Bradley's work throughout. The later lectures, dealing concretely with the familiar figures and actions of the *dramatis personæ*, are naturally more easily followed, and will appeal to a wider circle. But in these also we find the same qualities: the remarkable persistence with which this writer clings to the documents, the absence of that tendency to wander off on subjective lines which has vitiated much of the criticism of Coleridge and the Germans, the freedom from the bias of a literary orthodoxy to which he must conform, the illumination of a mind that has pondered deeply on life itself.

Dr. Bradley would be the first to deny that there is no more to say on these themes, that there are no other points of view worth occupying or methods worth pursuing. Here and there one is inclined to think that an interpretation would be modified by a closer examination of the theatrical conditions which the plays were designed to meet, or by a wider comparison with Elizabethan tragedy outside of Shakspeare. But it is not safe to assume that any omission of this sort is due to ignorance on the part of the author. It is not his method to prove his learning by footnotes; but there are abundant indications of a thorough study of the literature about Shakspeare, as well as an extraordinarily minute consideration of the plays themselves. A great mass of erudition, thoroughly digested, reasoned, and ordered, is brought to bear not merely on the four tragedies professedly dealt with, but incidentally on the other plays as well; the ideas are expressed in a style always admirably clear and often of a finely restrained eloquence; and the result is what one is compelled to regard as a permanent addition to the two or three great books on Shakspeare.

The Old Farmer and his Almanack; Being some observations on life and manners in New England a hundred years ago, suggested by reading the earlier numbers of Mr. Robert B. Thomas's 'Farmer's Almanack'; together with extracts, curious, instructive, and entertaining, as well as a variety of miscellaneous matter. By George Lyman Kittredge. Embellished with engravings. Boston: William Ware & Co. 1904.

There is little about either the Old Farmer or his Almanack in this volume, of which the title-page recalls to a critic such a name as *omnium-gatherum*. "The Man, his Book and Correspondents"; "Astrology," "The Man of the Signs," "Murder Will Out," "Wit and Wisdom," "Lawyers and Quacks," "Toad and Spider," "Sugar and Salt," "The Flying-Stationer," "Drowned!" "Fire!" "Huskings," "Indian Summer," "Army and Navy," "The Schoolmaster," "Titles of Honor," "Munchausen," "On the Road," "Entertainment for Man and Beast," "Moonhoax," "What to Read," "Barberries and Wheat," "Indian Talk," and "More Indian Talk"—few of these topics fail to deaden the momentum with which, in the table of contents, we pass on to their successors. There are, indeed, not a few purple patches sewed into this crazy-quilt, but they are hid from our eyes unless we find clues in the capacious index. These elegant extracts were largely compiled from the hun-

dred-volume series of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and similar publications, either voluminous or rare, like the works of Bradford, Mather, and other ancients, as well as the more recent town histories, Dwight's Travels, and Stiles's Diary. Thanks are also given to authors still in their best years for permission to forage in their harvest fields or to transplant cuttings from their nurseries. Yet, while importing such exotics, Professor Kittredge sometimes fails to borrow the vital spark. A typical case is the locution, Indian Summer. Regarding its origin, he states that earliest date, 1794, which it cost Mr. Albert Matthews more than a decade to establish, but he neglects to tell us the place where it first appeared—an omission which nullifies the significance of the Matthews finding. When both date and place are given by Matthews, the one is taken and the other left. Matthews's mention that he found it in a general's journal is borrowed, but no syllable shows where its author was born or lived or wrote. The *where* is as important as the *what*, the location as the locution. Marred by similar hiatuses, not a few sections are both too short as lacking an essential fraction, and too long as crammed with trivialities which make them dull, in Voltaire's phrase, "through saying everything."

A manifest aim and ear-mark of this Almanack commentary is popularizing folklore bibliothecally, and the result is garnering a plentiful harvest from books. But we miss the wisdom of the streets, immemorial sayings which are slow to pervade and permeate language with new words and new meanings, but always smack of mother-wit and first-hand observation. Such anecdotes abound in Franklin, and are not lacking in Thomas. A handful of such as these, gathered up and held in store for the mellowing of occasion, would prove a saving salt for a flock of platitudes which in our author are not appetizing. If learning has not made our author mad, it has kept him too bookish, or made him pass by on the other side, as unconsidered trifles, such books as the 'Biglow Papers,' which would perfume his pages all through with the genuine old Yankeeism. We cannot enough regret that he did not oftener turn his back on bookworms and books, and sit in conversation at the feet of his oldest nonagenarian neighbor. Thus, concerning postage in our early decades, we find in this medley no statement rousing a reader to notice that it would cost more than a dollar to mail a dollar bill for a single mile over the 400 limit. The old man, however, would first remind Professor Kittredge that each piece, however small, must pay the full rate, so that the bill and receipt required four postages each of a quarter. He would add: My father I saw cutting his bills in twain and doubling his postage, for, as he said, letter thieves would be thereby baffled since they would find half a bill valueless, and he retained the second half till he heard of the first at its goal. So, too, in talking of training-days, the man of three generations would tell of anvils serving for improvised cannon-crackers—and more noisy; of companies well-named floodwood (since they were like trees swept down, of all heights and sizes, in mountain torrents), and of a regiment lined up in a bee-line, not by a lucky accident, as our author has it, alongside a fence, but with all toes touching a

furrow in the grass cut beforehand with a dull axe true to a cord stretched from stake to stake. If questioned in relation to schools, the man of many decades would recall that his schoolma'am imprisoned naughty girls in a dark closet under the stairs, or made a bad boy sit between two of them for a triple shame. Her cuteness was at its best when she forced two bigger boys to switch each other while she stood ready to flog the first flincher. If asked about antique lunar credulity, our sage might say: Look at my centurial clock; mark on its face moon changes in figures on the centre. Thus, by opening his little finger, one who has long walked hand in hand with time, would let loose such relics of ancient New England as are rare in Professor Kittredge's book of erudition, which is tied to his topics only by an attenuated thread.

His ultimate and longest lucubration, "Indian Talk," may have been added in hope of praise won for a gay and festive ending like the furrow-end of Homer's ploughman, who sees there a boy with pitcher and goblet for his refreshment. This finale treats of aboriginal endeavors to imitate or at least mimic white men—in form, if not in truth—as to speech, writing, titles, and whole manner of life; and begins with an Indian writ in these words: "Me High Howder, yu constable, yu deputy, best way yu look um Jeremiah wicket, strong yu take um, fast yu hold um, quick yu bring um before me.—CAPTAIN HOWDER." The comic element here is perhaps not unalloyed with pathos.

Great Zimbabwe, Mashonaland, Rhodesia: An Account of Two Years' Examination Work in 1902-4 on behalf of the Government of Rhodesia, by R. N. Hall. With an introduction by Prof. A. H. Keane. With 200 illustrations, maps, and plans. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. Pp. xliii., 459. 8vo.

Great Zimbabwe—a native term for stone buildings—was forty centuries ago the metropolis of a gold-mining region in South Africa. It occupied an area about two miles square, the principal ruins being a temple and an acropolis or hill fortress. As gold in large quantities and in almost every form (from dust to most delicate and artistic ornaments), and furnaces, scorifiers, and crucibles have been found in them, it would certainly seem as if the ore must have been brought here from the surrounding country, smelted and manufactured or taken in ingots to the coast, the route being indicated by remains of forts. Though the site was discovered by the Portuguese in the early part of the sixteenth century, the first scientific explorer of it was the late Theodore Bent. In 1902 the Rhodesian Government commissioned Mr. R. N. Hall, who had spent several years in a general investigation of all the ancient ruins in the territory, to make a special examination of Great Zimbabwe, and this volume is a report of his two years' work. It contains, after a description of the place, its relics and "finds," and the ancient architecture, a minutely detailed account of each ruin or group of ruins. From this it will be evident that the book is intended for the archaeologist rather than for the public at large, though some lively pictures of native life and the impressions which the place made upon the author show that

he was capable of writing a book of general interest.

Although he has a decided conviction as to who these ancient miners were, he does not discuss the subject, but simply endeavors to let the ruins tell their own story. Prof. A. H. Keane, however, contributes an introduction, in which he restates his theory that this region was the "Havilah," "where there is gold," of the Old Testament (Gen. ii. 11), the port Sofala being Tarshish, while Ophir was the great Himyaritic emporium on the south coast of Arabia, whence the gold was distributed over the Eastern world. This is not a new theory; it was held in substance by Milton, who, in "Paradise Lost" (Book xi, 400) includes

"Sofala (thought Ophir) to the realm
Of Congo, and Angola farthest south"

among the kingdoms seen from the Mount of Temptation.

There have been numerous "finds," but no inscriptions; and, stranger still, no indications of burial-places have been discovered. But as nine-tenths of the ruins remain practically buried, it is possible that inscribed tablets like those of Telet-Amarna may be brought to light. It would take three years, says Mr. Hall, to explore the acropolis alone, there being seven distinct strata of debris. Though the absence of written documents prevents the fixing of exact dates, the ruins bear abundant testimony to the fact that at least four thousand years ago this region was inhabited by a vast number of people whose chief industry was gold mining. Among them were skilled architects and builders, expert jewellers, and men having some knowledge of astronomy. Their oriented temples containing soapstone beams with bird effigies and phalli, their architectural decorations and gold ornaments, show that they were akin to the South Arabians and Phœnicians. Their many fortresses on precipitous cliffs, made almost impregnable by narrow and tortuous passages, prove that they were foreign invaders of the soil and confronted by an ever-present foe who finally overwhelmed them. One cannot but feel that the place was the theatre, in those prehistoric times, of events as momentous as those in the annals of Babylon or Thebes. The numerous illustrations with which the volume is adorned give a graphic impression of some of the oldest works of man in existence.

Italian Backgrounds. By Edith Wharton. Illustrated by E. C. Peixotto. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1905.

This collection of essays on Italian subjects is full of suggestive ideas on the point of view people take as to what they expect to find, and what they wish to see, in their travels. Mrs. Wharton has many unusual qualifications for writing on the art of Italy in its many phases, among others a brilliant style, historic research, and a catholicity of taste. She herself, to use her own classification of travellers, belongs "to those idlers who refuse to measure art by time, and for whom Italy has a boundless horizon." The second category, "the happy few who remain more than three days," might well profit by her meditations as to how to employ their time and how to enjoy the "middle distance" which is their share; but, for the "hasty traveller"

"for whom the foreground is asterisked," her experience cannot serve. He has neither time nor capacity for seeing; does he not hurry through the Vatican rooms as if flying from destiny, and wondering what he has come to see? It is quite true that Italy cannot be understood or enjoyed by a hasty survey of its art treasures and sites of interest; only long sojourn, the serious study of its history and art development can prepare one for seeing intelligently and understanding the *raison d'être* of the different epochs which have left their mark on all the great cities with such astonishing predominance. The baroque character of Rome, for instance that seventeenth-century "debased style," according to the guide-book, which Bernini, Borromeo, and Maderno evolved in architecture, and Guercino, the Caracci and Claude Lorrain in painting, derived its inspiration directly from Michelangelo's ceiling in the Sistine, and the Moses in San Pietro in Vincoli. It is the expression of ecclesiastical pomp and Spanish ceremonial blended with the desire for nature's lines and the feeling of space; and how wonderfully the seventeenth-century churches are in harmony with the ruins of old Rome, and how little there would remain of what Rome actually is, were we to eliminate the baroque and limit our admiration to its classic and mediæval period. Styles are also very much subject to fashion. In Venice, where the "Byzantine Gothic" is the foreground, with a flavor of the early Renaissance, the eighteenth-century buildings were at one time considered the glory of the city, and St. Mark's was characterized as "barbarous Gothick." And it was this period which evolved Tiepolo, Canaletto, Guardi, and Longhi, painters who in their respective work express so vividly the joyous, careless life of pleasure of their time.

The great point insisted on by our author is that we should understand how literature and art and nature and history are blended together and go to the making of each city; and that we find in the backgrounds of old masters of the fifteenth century the life that went on around the artist very truthfully depicted, while the foregrounds, with their holy families, saints, and donors, are merely conventional. We are warned against dividing ourselves into the two camps of Gothic and classical art; rather to keep our minds open to the appreciation and understanding of all that is good of whatsoever time.

In the chapter on "Picturesque Milan" we are given a very good description of the Portinari chapel behind the choir of Sant' Eustorgio; the mausoleum of Saint Peter Martyr, one of the most exquisite achievements of Italian art, and till quite recently very little visited and known. The combination of Michelozzo's design and reliefs with Vincenzo Foppa's painting is very remarkable in harmony of line and for pure iridescent color scales of pale red and blue overlapping each other like the feathers on the breast of a wood-pigeon. The terra-cotta frieze of angels dancing and swinging between them large bells of flowers and fruit is a theme of complete joyousness, quite unique in design. In the chapter on Milan, too, we get a good account of that pilgrimage church of the Madonna of Saronno, which all lovers of Lulni and Gaudenzio Ferrari should visit,

although these Lulnis are rather in his latest manner, after he had fallen under Raphael's influence, while those of San Maurizio Maggiore are more characteristic of his peculiar charm.

Another excursion of great interest is our author's quest among the hills between Volterra and the Arno for the monastery containing a series of life-sized terra-cotta groups representing the scenes of the Passion, supposed to have been the work of a blind modeller of Gambassi, an artist of the seventeenth century, named Gonnelli. These groups were found at San Vivaldo, a monastery which the Italian Government had restored to the Franciscan order, San Vivaldo having been a follower of the Poverello during the latter half of the thirteenth century. Mrs. Wharton had the satisfaction of establishing their attribution to an earlier epoch than that of Gonnelli, the close of the fifteenth or beginning of the sixteenth century, recognizing at once in them far greater artistic quality than they were supposed to have possessed.

Notes from a Diary; 1896 to 1901. By the Right Hon. Sir Mountstuart E. Grant Duff. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

With these, the thirteenth and fourteenth of his published "Notes," Sir E. Grant Duff brings to a close that amazing diary which he began to issue about five years ago. Amazing, we call it, because his fourteen volumes are merely a selection from the whole record, which must be a leviathan among personal diaries. Grant Duff was in his day a well-known though never a distinguished figure in English politics and administration; but this side of his life, obviously the most interesting to the reader, he has rigidly excluded from his "Notes." "I have carefully avoided the chief interests of my life," he tells us in the preface, with what would almost amount to insolence were it not rather peculiarly British naïveté. The reader is therefore to understand that these copious notes are only the by-products; for the man's real interests he is invited from time to time to consult the newspapers of the day. The minor interests of the five years that we are now to consider are not, of course, of the strenuous kind, since the diarist's active years were ended. The collecting of plants and precious stones, dinners and breakfasts at certain literary and political clubs, and the anecdotes and reminiscences of elderly contemporaries collected even more assiduously than the plants and gems—this is the substance of Grant Duff's discreet pages.

Among the pupils of Jowett there has been more than one who, having attained to high honors in public life, has counted it not the least of his distinctions that he was "a pupil of Jowett." But though Grant Duff came under the influence of the Socrates of Balliol for three years of his Oxford life, he repudiates the notion that he owed anything to the intercourse. "We were always on the best of terms; but I am not conscious of having received much from him." This reminds us of a certain undergraduate who, after an evening with Jowett, wrote the following: "He asked me if I would have a glass of wine, so I poured out a glass of wine and drank it; then he asked me if I would eat an apple, so I ate an apple. But he said nothing and I said nothing. I'm told that he asks you to wine

that he may find out what sort of a fellow you are, but I wasn't going to let him see what sort of a fellow I am." We may be sure, however, that this engaging youth never lived to write like Grant Duff on Jowett: "We arrived at very similar conclusions upon many of the great subjects that have interested our times, by totally different though not distant paths."

We should be sorry to have to count the number of times in these two volumes that their author "dined at Grillion's," the London club at which both the leading men of both political parties meet and dine together with the avowed aim of averting social estrangement. By the time the industrious reader has reached the close of the diary he will find himself able to reconstruct a dinner at Grillion's, to put the right man in the chair, to seat half-a-dozen peers in their favorite places, and to give a typical conversation. Nearly all Grant Duff's anecdotes were gleaned at these dinners, and, if we may believe his reports of them, the conversation of English politicians consists almost entirely of rather pointless stories. But his reminiscences are colored by his conviction that "the most agreeable conversation is that which brings new grist to the mill of one's intelligence, in the shape of something one did not know before," and discussion was not likely to thrive in his immediate neighborhood. Occasionally the anecdotes are worth quoting:

"An Irish private went to ask his colonel for a week's leave, on the ground that he had been exceedingly useful to his wife at her spring cleaning the year before, and that he should like to be so again. 'It would give me,' said the colonel, 'the greatest possible pleasure to grant your request; but I am sorry to say that I have received a letter from your wife to say that you were of no use to her at the spring cleaning, and she hoped you would not get leave.' . . . 'There must be,' rejoined the man, 'two of the greatest liars in the world in this room, for I never had a wife.'"

The story of the death of Ollendorff also is well invented. He was dying, when a bystander caught these words: "Je meurs. On peut aussi dire, je me meurs." But an earlier pedantic decedent had said, "Je m'en vais, ou je m'en vas; l'un et l'autre se dit." That is an excellent story of Cecil Rhodes told by Lord Acton at a meeting of the Breakfast Club. Rhodes had asked him: "Why does not Mr. Theodore Bent say that the Zimbabwe ruins are Phœnician?" Acton replied: "Because he is not quite sure that they are." "Ah!" said the other, "that is not the way that Empires are founded."

On page 8 of the first volume Grant Duff gives a curious explanation of the familiar word "doily." It is that the family of D'Oyllys "once held the Castle of Oxford and very broad lands in the neighborhood; the obligation being to defend the same against all comers, while the formal act of homage was the presentation every year to the King of a small tablecloth to be used at dinner." If this be the true derivation of the word, it has escaped the editors of the Oxford Dictionary, where it is stated that the doily is so named from one Doily, a linendraper, who kept a famous shop in the Strand. We have not elsewhere met with the statement (on page 120 of the same volume) that the line in Gray's *Elegy* regularly printed:

"Await alike the inevitable hour"

ought to read

"Awaits alike the inevitable hour."

hour being in the nominative.

The memoirs of a moderately interesting man can be made very interesting indeed if their author has the gift of reporting and has been in close contact with the great men of his day. Grant Duff, in his long life, has known everybody in London worth knowing, but, as he is too scrupulous to use personal gossip, however harmless, and, according to his plan, ignores the great questions of the day (the Boer war for instance, is barely mentioned in his 'Notes'), he has missed his chance of being the Greville of his generation. This is a real loss to posterity, for he had all the opportunities of a Greville.

The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Natural History. By John Denison Champlin, with coöperation of Frederic A. Lucas. Henry Holt & Co. 1905. 8vo, xvi, 725 pp. Ills.

This is one of a series of cyclopædias for the young. In it the author has endeavored to compile in inexpensive form a book of reference in which may be found the main facts in regard to animals concerning which information is sought. The general plan adopted is to give the scientific facts regarding each animal's place in nature, its family or genus; an account of the important species of each group, with indication of the habitat, individual history, and habits of each, and pertinent information bearing on its origin, relationship to other forms recent or fossil, its relations to man, methods of hunting or capture, domestication, and such economic products as may be derived from it. The author is of opinion that he has furnished "an outline of the entire animal kingdom, from the largest mammal down to the tiniest insect," and that "no important branch or class has been neglected, and the fauna of no one part of the world has been selected to the exclusion of that of another part." This is claiming a good deal, and much depends upon what significance is given to the word "important."

We find the Cyclopædia quite full in the matter of vertebrates, especially mammals and birds; and the close examination of a number of selections at random reveals no serious errors. One would have thought the lowest vertebrate, *Amphioxus*, important enough to deserve a figure and an entry in the index, but its scientific name does not occur, and a few lines under *Leptocardii* give a very insufficient idea of the animal. Without conspicuous inaccuracy, the information in groups lower than the vertebrates declines rapidly in quantity and quality as we descend in the scale. This is perhaps natural, as the adequate presentation of such groups requires a grasp and knowledge not to be expected in an ordinary compiler without scientific training; and the defect would not have been particularly dwelt upon here except for the undue pretensions of Mr. Champlin's preface.

The text in general shows little systematic grasp in the arrangement of facts, either in the articles as a whole or in any article in particular. Most of the conceded facts may be found by hunting for them, but they do not appear to be stated in any determined order, rather, as it were, haphazard. The accounts of such animals as

ants and bees are lacking in freshness, though correct enough in a general way. The text throughout bears testimony to painstaking compilation rather than to ready knowledge.

There are more than eight hundred illustrations, many of them derived by a process of reduction from the uncopyrighted treasure-house of Brehm's 'Thierleben,' which has served to enrich most American works of this class for many years. It is needless to say that they are good, even when they recall the "rich jewel in an Ethiope's ear." However, all things are relative, and for certain purposes and people this volume may have a value which justifies its publication, and may ensure its success.

International Law. Part I: Peace. By John Westlake. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1904.

Mr. Westlake, who is Whewell Professor of International Law at Cambridge, is well known as a writer on international law, both private and public. In his preface he speaks of his intention to follow this volume by another on international relations as affected by a state of war, and perhaps in this he will include all the questions grouped under the heads of Neutrality and the Law of Prize, thus completing a work which will have the scope of the Law of Nations as a whole. He rather unnecessarily disclaims all design of producing an "encyclopædia"; his present volume is a small and compact collection of essays which challenges comparison at many points with the work of the systematic writers who have followed in the footsteps of Grotius. At the same time he wishes it to be noticed that his treatment is not "deductive," for while he admits that such a treatment "might start from State sovereignty or from the assertion of certain rights as inherent in a State," he seems to be of opinion that it would lead in many cases to no result "unless the starting-points were defined with a precision only attainable by embodying the conclusions in them." Not being deductive (and the professedly historical method being also excluded), it follows that the volume is mainly descriptive of the actual state of international law, and the topics embrace a "General View of International Law," "The Sources and Principles of International Law," "The Classification of States," "The Origin, Continuity and Extinction of States," "The Title to State Territory," "Rivers," "The Sea," "Territorial Waters," "Nationality and Alienage," "National Jurisdiction," "Diplomacy," "The Political Action of States," "The Protection of Subjects Abroad," and "International Arbitration."

We have been much struck with what Mr. Westlake has to say on the last head. His analysis of the difference—difficult or impossible to define, yet very substantial—between "legal" and "political" questions, is very good, and throws light on the vexed question of the proper scope of arbitration treaties. So, too, the chapter on "The Protection of Subjects Abroad" is valuable, though here, if we are not mistaken, the author's method is not very advantageous to a satisfactory solution of the questions involved. What we crave here is precisely "deduction"—the key in some principle

of the true view; for the practice of States tends rather to obscure the matter than to clear it up. Is there any difference between deliberate fraud practised by a sovereign State on foreign bondholders and an ordinary maritime tort? Is one to be redressed, and the other ignored? Here, certainly, the rule of "equal treatment with nationals" cannot help us much; it could hardly be an answer to such a claim that the sovereign State had also deliberately repudiated the bonds held by its own citizens. The author's remarks on this subject seem to us wanting in clearness. On the other hand, Mr. Westlake's account of Title by Discovery and Effective Occupation is an admirable one, both for clearness and for brevity. We have not space to go into such technical matters as alienage, nationality, the *jus soli* and *jus sanguinis*, and domicile. On this whole range of questions, Mr. Westlake's standing is well known.

Manuel d'Assyriologie. Tome Premier. Par Charles Fossey. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1904. Pp. xiv., 470.

This is the first volume of a work of ambitious scope. In his preface, M. Fossey complains that while few sciences have in the last few years made such rapid progress as Assyriology, and few can promise more rapid progress in the years to come, from lack of some central, systematic publication it is impossible for the student to ascertain, without infinite searching of journals and reviews, the state of any question Assyriological. There is to-day no general review of Assyrian-Babylonian literature, no complete résumé of the innumerable geographical data contained in that literature, no inventory of the texts relative to any one of the divinities of the Assyrian pantheon, etc. M. Fossey proposes, if he finds sufficient support, to make this *Manual of Assyriology* a central publication, up to date, of everything which pertains to Assyria and Babylon.

In the present volume he discusses explorations and excavations, the decipherment of the cuneiform text, and the origin and history of cuneiform writing. Others, as, for instance, Rogers and Hilprecht, have given a general survey of explorations and excavations from the earliest time onward, and of the history of the state and interpretation of the cuneiform text; but no one has produced so complete and

so systematic a survey as Fossey in the present volume. Commencing with Benjamin of Tudela, he gives a list of all who are known to have journeyed in Babylonia, Assyria, and adjacent regions belonging to the Assyrian-Babylonian civilization, and who have left any record of their travels or explorations, with a brief statement of what they did. The first book closes with a list of the principal Babylonian-Assyrian epigraphical monuments, arranged according to their place of origin. While the title-page bears the date of 1904, the list of explorations closes with the year 1902, and does not, therefore, include the last American expedition to Bismya, undertaken under the auspices of the University of Chicago, the latest work of the English at Nineveh, the latest results of the German and French expeditions in Assyria, Babylonia, and Persia, or the Assyrian-Babylonian discoveries in the Austrian and English excavations in Palestine, which should be included, according to the scope of the work. As a book of complete reference it is, therefore, already out of date.

The second book deals with the decipherment of the various forms of cuneiform script, Persian, Susian and Assyrian-Babylonian, collating first the references to cuneiform writing in classical authors—Herodotus, Thucydides, etc.—and then of modern travellers. The history of the actual decipherment commences with Grotefend. In his interest in Grotefend's work in deciphering the Persian cuneiform, M. Fossey quite loses the sense of proportion. Grotefend's work was remarkable chiefly because it so long antedated the actual decipherment of the inscriptions; practically it had little effect. His original paper was read before the Göttingen Academy in 1802; it was not actually published until 1895. The real decipherer of the Persian cuneiform was Sir Henry Rawlinson, whose work was published in 1846-49. Yet only two pages are devoted to Rawlinson, and nearly twenty to Grotefend. Even Lassen has a place several times larger than that assigned to Rawlinson. This is due to the author's interest in the beginnings of decipherment, whether productive or not. Similarly, in the chapter on the decipherment of the Assyrian-Babylonian writings, excessive space, so far as practical results are concerned, is given to Botta, Sauley, and Hincks.

The third book deals with the origin and history of the cuneiform characters. The

greater part of this section is devoted to the discussion of the curious Sumerian controversy. Halévy, it will be remembered, contended that there was no Sumerian language, and that the inscriptions supposed to be Sumerian were really Semitic-Babylonian written in a hieratic script. Inasmuch as the controversy is now settled in favor of the Sumerian origin of the Babylonian cuneiform, the author scarcely needed to devote one hundred pages to a report and discussion of Halévy's peculiar theories.

Following these three books is a condensed and convenient bibliography arranged according to chapters, complete up to 1902, but containing also some references from 1903 and 1904. The book is also furnished with an index, and a map (which the author says that he had much difficulty in preparing, owing to the peculiar nature of the material available), the single object of which is to illustrate the history of the explorations and excavations. We have not noted, in our examination of this map, the omission of any place of importance.

The value of this work is as an encyclopædia of ready reference, and it is to be regretted that the author has sometimes lost sight of that fact.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Bailey, L. H. *The Outlook to Nature.* Macmillan \$1.25 net.
 Benson, Arthur C., Edward Fitzgerald. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
 Crowninshield, Mary Boardman, *Letters of.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
 Dicey, A. V. *Lectures on the Relation between Law and Public Opinion in England during the 19th Century.* Macmillan.
 Ferry, Edmond. *La France en Afrique.* Paris: Armand Colin.
 Graves, Algernon. *The Royal Academy of Arts.* Vol. I. Macmillan Co. \$11.
 Herriek, Robert. *The Real World.* Macmillan Co. History of All Nations. Vol. VIII., by Hans Prutz. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co.
 Kent, Charles Foster. *Israel's Historical and Biographical Narratives.* Scribner. \$2.75 net.
 Macquoid, Katharine S. *Pictures in Umbria.* Imported by Scribners. \$1.50 net.
 McCrackan, W. D. *The Fair Land of Tyrol.* Boston: L. O. Page & Co. \$1.60 net.
 Prentiss, E. P. *Japanese for Daily Use.* William R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
 Roberts, Theodore. *Brothers of Peril.* Boston: L. O. Page & Co. \$1.50.
 Rouvier, Gaston. *La Née de M. Jacob Gaspard.* Paris: Charpentier.
 Seton, William. *The Building of the Mountain.* O'Shea & Co.
 Sheehan, P. A. *Glenannaar; A Story of Irish Life.* Longmans. \$1.50.
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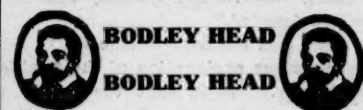
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